

The Nation.

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The Week.

THE Republicans in the House opened the session somewhat inauspiciously by voting two of the Kellogg delegates from Louisiana into their seats without reference to a committee. About one of them, Mr. Sheldon, there was no dispute. About the other, Mr. Sypher, there was a good deal, but he was also voted in with the greatest *sang-froid*, General Butler directing the proceeding. Pinchback, of whom we have given a short biography in these columns, was the third, but his case was laid over, and the next day, under Butler's direction, was referred to a committee. An attempt was made to dispose of contested seats for Western Virginia by a party vote also, but it was too barefaced, and they were referred to a committee. But when it came to the case of Smith, the Kellogg delegate from the Shreveport district in Louisiana, which was on its face a suspicious one, the majority again went to work and voted him into his seat without enquiry by a committee, Butler again presiding over the process.

The only speeches of importance during the week were those of Mr. Morrill of Vermont and Mr. Ferry of Michigan, in the Senate, on the financial situation. Mr. Morrill confined himself to an able exposition of the defects and dangers of an irredeemable paper currency. Mr. Ferry, who represented Western ideas, advocated the substitution of Government legal-tender notes for the national-bank notes now afloat, making the total volume of irredeemable Government notes \$800,000,000. This done, he would release the banks from all legal restrictions, and issue 3.65 bonds to give the currency an "elastic end," and would substitute silver for the fractional currency, after which he thinks the country would thrive in a surprising manner. He is of opinion that the great need of the day is more greenbacks. The "elastic end" to his currency would, however, only enable him to put money into bonds when it was too plentiful; it would not enable him to increase the volume of the currency when it was too scarce—a difficulty which has been frequently pointed out to the advocates of schemes of this class, and to which we again earnestly call their attention. Will they seriously consider what is to be done when, the business of the country having "grown up" to their \$800,000,000 limit, the stringency again begins to be felt? Suppose the whole amount is thrown out, and money still brings 200 per cent. in Wall Street, what then? Would they not once more step forward and ask for more greenbacks, and so on *ad infinitum*, or, in plain English, to the bottomless pit? Mr. Kelley of Pennsylvania also appeared on the scene in the House with the 3.65 bond scheme. The amount of happiness and prosperity expected from this plan appears to be enormous. It seems to bring many gentlemen mental peace not unlike that which Micawber felt when he discharged his debts by giving his note. The ignorance—we were going to say brutish ignorance—which prevails on these questions in many quarters has been illustrated during the week by the *Chicago Journal of Commerce*, which maintains that the volume of the currency does not affect prices, and the *Philadelphia Press*, edited by a leading Pennsylvania politician, actually adopts the statement.

Mr. Wilson of Indiana has also introduced a financial scheme, which proposes to remove all restrictions on the bank circulation, and allow the banks to use their reserves, and enable the Government to withdraw enough legal tenders, as fast as the bank circulation is increased, to accumulate a Government "reserve" of \$100,000,000, to be lent in tight times to all comers, on the security of Government bonds, for periods not exceeding three months. This is the old story; but he makes one new and excellent proposal, which

is that the Bank Examiners should report to the Comptroller of the Currency at stated intervals, and publish in the local papers, the nature and amount of the loans made by the banks, and the kind of security taken. This would supply valuable information now wanting to dealers, and would inspire bank managers with much salutary caution. We present these schemes now as fair specimens of what is floating in the minds of inflationists and persons who think that some good must come of putting the pea under another thimble; but we owe it to our readers not to burden our columns with any more of them until something is produced with a sufficient amount of support to make it seem likely that it will pass.

In our account of the President's Message, we were unable for the want of space to give any account of the Dominican Protectorate applied for by Baez. It seems that as long ago as the 18th of August, Baez drew up a memorial to the President, recalling to his memory the facts in the case, viz.: that though for thirty years the Dominicans have been harassed either openly or by secret warfare by the Haytiens, and that though always successful on the field of battle, they have "not yet been able to complete a victory." For this reason they desired annexation, but the annexation scheme falling through, the country was left to struggle alone with overwhelming difficulties, the Samana Bay Company giving "the finishing stroke to the situation," "especially since the noise of its establishment has been succeeded by the most deliberate silence and the most listless indifference." Baez therefore asks relief for the Dominicans from their present situation, which he says is "horrible," by the establishment of a protectorate, and expresses the opinion that if the President does establish one, he will have "the immense satisfaction of having saved the future of a people of the world discovered by Columbus," without entailing upon himself any embarrassment whatever. This document, it is now said, was handed by Baez to a representative of our Government, who took it home with him, and forgot all about it until he remembered that Congress was going to meet in December, and then sent it on to Washington. Dr. S. G. Howe, who wrote to us some weeks ago denying that the Samana Company was urging the Government to establish a protectorate, will find in this petition of Baez the facts out of which the rumor sprang. Dr. Howe in his letter said that a statement of ours, to the effect that the "barbarous population of the interior are now in arms against him" (Baez), was entirely untrue. Baez, unfortunately, represents that, whether they are in arms or not, they give him at any rate a great deal of trouble; and we are inclined to think that his views about his actual condition in San Domingo are as trustworthy as those of Dr. Howe.

After the *Crédit Mobilier* exposure last winter, Congress passed an act directing a suit against everybody connected in any way with that company. The object of the suits was the recovery of the money of which the company had defrauded the United States, and, for the convenience of the Government, the act authorized a single suit against all the defendants in a single United States Circuit Court in Connecticut. The immediate effect of this act was a depression of Union Pacific securities, owing to the injunction served on every one who held the bonds, the innocent holders suffering quite as much as the "corruptionists." The suit itself has gone against the Government, the court (Judges Shipman and Hunt) deciding that it had jurisdiction, but that the Government had not sufficient interest to support the suits. The case will be taken up to the Supreme Court. The whole affair has been shamefully mismanaged, for the Government has certainly been defrauded of several millions dollars interest, if nothing else, and at one time had such a control over the road that it might have compelled any terms; but that was before the *Crédit Mobilier* business was heard of. As to the suit itself, the defendants were represented by such lawyers as B. R. Curtis, Sidney

Bartlett, and W. M. Evarts, while the Government lawyer was Mr. George H. Williams. The appearance made by Mr. Williams in the case was very unfortunate, and does not tend to reconcile the bar throughout the country to his nomination as Chief-Justice.

The publication of the protocol of the agreement between Mr. Fish and Admiral Polo caused great excitement at Havana, which Jovellar, the Captain-General, tried to calm by a proclamation, meanwhile, however, telegraphing to Madrid that the order of the Government in the matter of the delivery of the *Virginus* would be carried out. On Friday last the news came that Cuba, or rather the Volunteers, were prepared to fight Spain, the United States, and any other great powers that made common cause with them, sooner than surrender the *Virginus*, and this alarming threat was actually sufficient to cause a decline in stocks and an advance in gold. The Volunteers were, it is said, prepared to deliver the ship to a neutral power instead of the United States, to await the result of arbitration, and Admiral Polo, it was reported from Washington, gave some support to the suggestion, but Mr. Fish declined to accede to it. Later advices show, however, that the Volunteers are undergoing a change of mind, and will probably not engage in hostilities with the United States at present. Our Government has in the meantime very properly avoided wounding their susceptibilities by not making as yet any display of force in Cuban ports.

There have been numerous stories during the week about General Sickles's position in Madrid, and it seemed at one time to be certain that he had resigned. At this writing, however, the news is that nothing is known of his resignation in Washington, and that the sole reason why he has been set aside in the late negotiations is that the Spaniards preferred treating through Admiral Polo. This does not militate against the story, however, that he has been making himself, in some manner, obnoxious at Madrid. In fact, we believe that he has never been more than tolerated there, in spite of the efforts of some of the Administration papers to make it appear that he was becoming an object of mingled love and reverence. Whether he has resigned now or not, we think most decent people on this side of the water are of opinion that it is high time that he did. He has never been anything in Spain but a disgrace to us all. He was preceded to Spain by a pamphlet in Spanish, which was sent to every Spaniard of note in and out of politics, and contained his not very savory private history in full. The result was, of course, that his appointment was felt to be an insult, which, however, Spain was in no condition to resent. So Spanish gentlemen made the best of the matter by covering him with official civilities and carefully withholding social ones. Spaniards are not remarkably good politicians, but men of honor are still numerous among them.

A despatch was received from England on Monday which bore evident marks of the cock and the bull, relating how the crew of the *Loch Earn* had reached home, reported that the French officers and crew of the *Ville du Havre* had behaved in a most cowardly manner, the officers having made their escape in dry clothes in their boats before the steamer sunk, and resisted the entreaties of the *Loch Earn's* people to go back and try to save life, until the latter, in a burst of humane indignation, took arms and threatened to fire on them. This was all silly and ridiculous; but it obtained circulation and credence enough to induce the agents here to telegraph to France and ask for an answer, which has come. It contradicts the story *in toto*, and with it contradicts the statement of the master of the *Loch Earn* that he saw the steamer long before he struck, and vainly endeavored to attract her attention and avoid the collision. The matter has undergone thorough enquiry in France, and we shall probably have the evidence, if not the report or decision, in a few days. In the meanwhile, the fewer "theories" are put in circulation, the less injustice there will be done. We may say, to come down to particulars, that the "views of an old shipmaster," of which

there are a great many afloat just now, on a marine disaster of the facts of which he knows nothing, are hardly more valuable than those of an old gaucho.

Besides the Boston municipal election—so curious for its multiplicity of candidates, and so encouraging in its defeat of the rings—two other things in Massachusetts politics are worth attention. One is the movement, already well under way, of fully rehabilitating Mr. Sumner as the regular Republican candidate for the Senatorship. Who it is that is to be his opponent next winter, in case nothing goes awry in the meantime, is well understood; but General Butler apparently has forgotten how hard a man to beat Mr. Sumner can make himself in any probable Massachusetts legislature. It is a long way to be looking ahead at this time, it being possible for so much to happen between now and January of 1875, but the preliminaries of the contest are already engaging serious attention in that State. The other thing of which we have spoken as noteworthy is the probability that in the course of the next two years an end will be put to the long and discreditable chapter of Massachusetts prohibitory legislation, so-called. A rearrangement of legislative representation takes place after the census of the State has been taken. Massachusetts takes a census independently of our national census, in the middle of each decade. It is known already that the census of 1875 will furnish further proof of the fact that the State tends more and more to gather its population into the cities and towns. These busy places grow with rapidity, and relatively to them the country districts may be said to stand still. But the cities and towns show every disposition to abolish at least the more obnoxious portions of the prohibitory legislation, and even to do away with it altogether. Should this anticipated event take place, it will, to be sure, be a rather illogical way of bringing to an end the State's policy in respect to this matter, but we imagine that it will be welcome nevertheless. And, indeed, to make men act as cool legislators in regard to a subject about which it is so much easier to feel and wish like a good man than to decree like a wise one, will always be hard. It is a very searching test to apply to the ability of any legislature, and it is no wonder if our legislatures are found wanting when tried by such a standard. It is a little wonderful, however, that they should swear till they are black in the face that they are not found wanting.

The Granges continue forming throughout the West, and the membership in the entire country is estimated at several hundred thousands. Since the elections, and probably not only since but because of the panic, there has been latterly in these organizations very little of the discussion which seemed so rife a few months since on the subject of *pro-rata* transportation charges. When a Grange meets now, and organizes by the choice of officers—among whom in some of the Granges is a female official known as Ceres and another as Pomona—the debates which ensue are as a general thing not denunciatory of the corrupt holders of stock, but cover much ground, political, social, and financial—ranging often from the tyrannous exactions of the Pork-men to some of the nicest questions of finance, political economy, and sociology. The Indiana State Grange, for instance, has been in session at Valparaiso, and adopted resolutions favoring such a change in the laws "as will remove the trial of all minor crimes punishable by fine or imprisonment in jail to justice's courts"; favoring "such expansion of the currency" as may be "necessary to relieve the country of the present financial embarrassment and promote the interests of labor"; favoring a reduction of the number of members of the legislature by redistricting the State; condemning all increase of salaries; demanding the repeal of the Salary-grab Bill, and favoring the encouragement of home manufactures. The only thing in the platform relating to railroads was a resolution in favor of more lines, and asking for Congressional charters, but opposing Congressional subsidies.

Judge C. T. Sherman of Ohio (United States District Court for the Northern District) has resigned his position on account of the charges brought against him some time ago. The charges, which were substantially proved, were these: Hearing that the New York Stock Exchange wished to obtain a repeal of the tax on borrowed capital, he made an arrangement with Mr. Lockwood, one of its principal members, since dead, to bring about the repeal; and, the repeal having been secured, demanded \$10,000 for his services, representing that the repeal was accomplished chiefly by himself, through his great influence with such men as his brother, John Sherman, Chairman of the Finance Committee of the Senate. When brought before the Committee of Ways and Means, however, he denied that he had had any interviews with the gentlemen named, and said that he did not want the money for himself, but for some third persons—Judge Bartley, his brother-in-law, and Mr. R. C. Parsons, a United States marshal. He says in his letter of resignation that his leading and governing motive in leaving the bench is the desire to "avoid publicity." Judge Delahay of Kansas, another United States judge, has made up his mind to retire from the bench, and has resigned; but what he desired to avoid was not publicity, but impeachment for drunkenness.

The quarrel between the people of Pennsylvania and the Philadelphia Ring has resulted in a victory for the latter. The Supreme Court has unanimously decided the ordinance of the Constitutional Convention, providing a special election for Philadelphia, under the superintendence of a commission appointed by the convention itself, to be illegal. The election, as far as Philadelphia is concerned, must therefore be held under the registry law passed by the Ring for the sole purpose of enabling it to roll up fraudulent majorities. The ground of the decision is that the legislature imposed restrictions on the convention, one of which was a restriction from interfering with the registry law. Those restrictions the convention illegally disregarded. There is, besides this, however, another miscarriage, for the registry was not the only thing which the legislature, on passing its law for the government of the convention, declared to be sacred. They forbade, also, any interference with the Declaration of Rights, and notwithstanding this injunction the convention made alterations in it. The opponents of the instrument now say that these alterations have "tainted the whole work," and hint very broadly that if they do not defeat the constitution at the polls they will afterwards get the Supreme Court to declare it null and void, or that they will perhaps get it declared void in advance. There is known to be an overwhelming majority in the State in favor of the constitution, and it would be melancholy indeed if technical quibbles should really defeat what is perhaps the best draft of a constitution in the United States. It may be worth while to recall the fact that the constitution of the United States itself was adopted in a wholly illegal manner, the Constitutional Convention which assembled at Philadelphia having been sent there under restrictions imposed by the States which it disregarded in the most glaring way; it would seem that their work was all tainted, and that we have really had no constitution in this country for nearly a century—and in fact never. The *Press* of Philadelphia says that the newspapers of the State stand (without counting those which are not committed either way) 208 for, to 18 against, the constitution.

Bishop Cummins's secession has resulted in the formation of a new church, called the "Reformed Episcopal Church." The organization was set up in this city a fortnight ago. Dr. Cummins is the presiding bishop, and Mr. Cheney, of Chicago, the missionary bishop. The new church stands by the Bible, the Apostles' Creed, the Thirty-nine Articles, and recognizes the episcopacy, not as of divine right, but as "a very ancient and desirable point of church policy." It condemns as erroneous the doctrine that there is only one

order or form of ecclesiastical polity in Christ's church; that ministers are any more priests than other believers; that there is any real presence in the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper, or any regeneration in baptism. These are all Low-Church doctrines. It is difficult to see, however, what Dr. Cummins and Mr. Cheney hope to gain by keeping up the episcopacy. They both proclaim that nobody is bound to obey a bishop unless he pleases, and the use of a bishop who has no authority has not yet been revealed. Why will Mr. Cheney, on his own showing, be anything more than an itinerant preacher? His confirmation can be dispensed with, and his ordination is a mere form.

The British expedient for the solution of the railroad problem, the "Railway Commission"—appointed by an act of last session of Parliament for the decision of controversies between the corporations and the public—has recently had its first sitting, and a report of the proceedings has reached this country by the last mail. The experiment is one which we on this side of the water would do well to watch. The commission is composed of a dry statistical politician, Sir Frederick Peel, a man entirely wanting in "magnetism," a Queen's counsel, Mr. MacNamara, and an engineer, we believe, Mr. Price. The jurisdiction of the commission covers all complaints of the charges made by the companies, and all other disputes between them and the public, except such as relate to damages for injuries actually sustained; these are, as heretofore, left to the courts. The cases which came before the commissioners on the first day may help to give some idea of their powers and duties. They were only two in number. One was the complaint of the town council of Dover against a railroad company for not supplying Dover with adequate railroad accommodation, both as regards fares and the number of trains, and for giving undue preference, to the detriment of Dover, to Ramsgate, Margate, and Hastings, which are rival watering-places. The other was that of an expressman, or carrier, against another company for giving themselves, indirectly through their agents, a preference over him in the collection and delivery of goods. In every case the complainants are examined strictly on the point whether they have used all proper means to obtain redress directly from the railroad before coming to the Commission, as it is only when these have been exhausted that a summons is granted.

The Austrian Minister of Finance has introduced some extraordinary measures for extricating the commercial community in Vienna from the financial embarrassment in which it has been languishing since April last. The attempt made to wind up the various broken-down companies by the aid of a syndicate of bankers, of which we spoke some weeks ago, has failed through want of money and the panic in New York, so it is now resolved to resort to extraordinary measures and make a great state loan to people in distress. Neither "Uncle Boutwell" nor "Daddy Richardson," as the brokers call them, has ever proposed anything half so paternal. The state is to borrow \$40,000,000 in silver, and lend part of it to complete the railroads which were in process of construction when the panic occurred. What remains of the money is to be lent out, through the medium of loan-offices, on produce and wines not subject to deterioration, and on quotable stocks and bonds, for periods of three and six months, and at eight per cent., which is what the money costs the Government. Whether this will "move the crops" remains to be seen. There is, we believe, a scheme somewhat resembling this in preparation at Washington, by which an unlimited quantity of "money" is to be lent to all persons applying for it, on bond and mortgage on real estate, at four per cent. per annum; but here the Government is not to descend to borrow the sum needed to make the loans; it is to strike it off from an Adams press, in the best style of typography.

THE CUBAN VOLUNTEERS.

NOTHING has occurred in the Cuban affair to raise any doubts as to the soundness of the opinion that the *Virginus* was not entitled to the use of the American flag, and that the dispute with Spain will eventually turn upon her mode of deciding the character of the ship and of disposing of the passengers. The theory to which Dr. Woolsey has given some countenance, that, if the *Virginus* was a mere pirate, we might not be able to call Spain to account for her summary mode of dealing with the crew, receives a severe blow from the following article of the Treaty of 1795 between that country and the United States:

"ART. VII.—And it is agreed that the subjects or citizens of each of the contracting parties, their vessels or effects, shall not be liable to any embargo or detention on the part of the other for any military expedition or other public or private purpose whatever. And in all cases of seizure, detention, or arrest for debts contracted or offences committed by any citizen or subject of the one party within the jurisdiction of the other, the same shall be made and prosecuted by order and authority of law only, and according to the order of proceedings usual in such cases. The citizens and subjects of both parties shall be allowed to employ such advocates, solicitors, notaries, agents, and factors as they may judge proper in all their affairs and in all their trials of law in which they may be concerned before the tribunals of the other party; and such agents shall have free access to be present at the proceedings in such causes, and at the taking of all examinations and evidence which may be exhibited in the said trials."

If this article have any force, while the right of the *Tornado* to arrest the ship may not be questioned, the duty of holding the crew for examination, according to the stipulated forms, seems very clear, and the offence against humanity involved in their execution has been aggravated by breach of faith. We may add that, while we hope our Government will not complicate the pending case by the introduction of any new points, a settlement with Spain cannot be called complete which does not provide in some manner for the control of the Cuban Volunteers. The presence so close to these shores of a large body of armed men, undisciplined, and refusing obedience to any authority known to diplomacy, is something which, out of consideration of the difficulties created by the rebellion, it may have been well to overlook for a while, but five years is long enough, and, as it has turned out, too long, for any such indulgence. The holding of Cuba by an army which deliberates in public meetings, regulates its movements by resolution, and refuses obedience to any regularly constituted government, and threatens foreign powers with war, is something which no neighboring power can be expected to tolerate indefinitely. We are, as our readers know, opposed to anything like "blood and thunder" diplomacy, and think a war with Spain would be one of the most wretched enterprises in which a nation like this could engage. We can, therefore, say, without being misunderstood, that we should be very sorry to see plainly necessary precautions neglected, and plain duties avoided, either through sentimental admiration of Señor Castelar, or sentimental sympathy with that peculiar form of political organization called the "Spanish Republic." These two motives supply a good many people with all the policy they have with regard to either Spain or Cuba, and we dare say that in all the ladies' boarding-schools and at all the Women's Rights lunches they are deemed overwhelming. But it can hardly be that they will weigh seriously with adult male politicians like General Grant and Mr. Fish. Whatever may be Señor Castelar's merits, and whatever may be the character of the Government over which he presides, and however reluctant we may be to mix ourselves up in the Cuban embroglio, and however ready we may be to look on while the Spanish regulars try to extinguish the rebellion, the *Virginus* affair shows plainly that we cannot safely tolerate any longer the control of the island or of the civil authority by the Volunteers. These Volunteers are a large body of armed men who are not amenable to the Captain-General or to the home Government, and who nevertheless proclaim martial law and inflict death by sentence of drumhead court-martial at their pleasure, and who pass on the lives of foreigners apparently with as little hesitation as on those of native Cubans. Their movements, so far as can be made out, are directed by a club in Havana, having branches in other cities, called

the Casino Español, which deliberates in secret and openly defies the recognized functionaries of the state. In fact, these men have come to occupy towards their own Government a position closely analogous to that occupied by the Janissaries and Mamelukes, before their destruction, towards the Governments of Turkey and Egypt respectively. Towards foreign governments, and our own in particular, they occupy to all intents and purposes the position of a band of buccaneers who have taken possession of a West Indian island and bid us defiance. They are not worth discussing as a military body. They are apparently drilled to some extent, but show no sign of discipline, and would probably be dispersed on open ground by a few rounds of grape; but as long as they are let alone, under the pretence, which everybody knows to be a sham, that they are Spanish troops under the orders of the Spanish commander-in-chief, we shall be constantly exposed to complications such as that from which we have just so narrowly escaped.

Now, we think we are within the mark when we say that our Government owes it to American citizens of all classes, to merchants, to sailors and travellers especially, to see that this nuisance is now abated. It is perfectly reasonable to ask the Spanish Cabinet either to disarm the Volunteers, or to convert them into a proper military corps, under military discipline and professional officers. If it cannot do this, or refuses to do it, then it will certainly be our duty, and one which international law allows and common sense imposes, to exercise a police in Cuban waters and ports so powerful that we shall have an end, at least in the large towns, of the butcheries, and émeutes, and vaporings which have disgraced Cuban history during the last five years, and that American citizens shall have a fair trial. We cannot negotiate with the Casino Español, but we can bring it down to its proper duties of smoking and gossip. Of course this means that the navy ought to be put on proper footing. We ought to have a small iron-clad fleet of the best kind, and maintained in the highest state of efficiency. The worst of being taken as short as we are now is not the laughableness of our hurried launching of swarms of old wooden tubs, but the enormous waste, jobbery, and corruption which this sudden preparation either produces or covers, and which in the event of hostilities exposes us to a check which, by stinging us to the quick and leading the enemy to underestimate our strength, might convert, as once before, a "ninety-day" skirmish into a long and bloody war.

THE CONGRESSIONAL SITUATION.

IT is now but little more than two years since this city appeared to be hopelessly under the rule of the Ring, with Tweed jocular in the supposed impregnability of his position; with a judiciary whose controlling members turned the judicial power to the support of what was dangerously bad, and the protection of those who were most audaciously guilty; with operators like Fisk, able to use the civic power, the courts, and the ruffian element of the city with equal impunity in furtherance of their predatory schemes. The changes that have taken place since, and the consummation that has been reached so recently, it is unnecessary to sketch. Outside of the city, there was the same general apathy of the public conscience, indifference in the breasts of some men, and hopelessness in the breasts of others. The immense harvest of embezzlements and defalcations which we have reaped during the current year were not only planted but well grown, the principal difference between that time and this being that the public intelligence did not care to investigate where it suspected, nor to bring criminals to punishment where crime had actually been brought to the light. Underneath that apathy, however, there was, as we frequently took occasion to hope when affairs seemed at the darkest, a sense of right and an appreciation of public integrity that would become effective whenever aroused into real action. In this city the evils were the worst, but they were not confined to the city; and it is, therefore, not surprising that other and distant parts of the country have, within say four years, been engaged in the work of reform. The Constitutional Convention of Illinois is an instance of what public sentiment was

there, and the recent Constitutional Convention in Pennsylvania is an instance of what public sentiment is becoming there. Both of these conventions, we may remark, went much deeper into matters than their projectors even hoped for, and both will leave lasting effects and results that could hardly be anticipated by the most sagacious. It seems now clear that the Constitutional Convention of New York came too soon, and that its extraordinary timidity was the effect of the then supposed public indifference, and its timidity the cause of the limited good and unsatisfactory result which it accomplished.

So far as the Federal Government was concerned, the principal evils under which the country suffered were readily traceable to Congress. In Congress at that time the *Crédit Mobilier* operators must have felt as secure in their position as Tweed did in his, with the apparent advantage that their public enquiry was effectually over, while his was only beginning. The "salary-grab" of 1866 had produced very little censure, notwithstanding that it was retroactive, that it was fraudulently coupled with a meritorious measure, and that it was pushed through Congress with indecent haste. Congressmen took courage, and, after ingeniously dividing the responsibility between the two political parties, so that neither could be made to answer for it, concluded that the act would be forgotten, or, at most, be classed with ordinary public and political scandals. Indeed, the public apathy was so universal that the honorable managers of the foray were afterwards able to boast that only one member had refused to take his share, and that he was not re-elected by his constituents. Special legislation was rapidly becoming the only legislative business, and Honest John Vane, by the dozen, regarded "the last hours of the session" as an unfailing harvest-time, and congratulated themselves when the hammer fell, and the Speaker declared the session at an end, as "being now in comfortable circumstances." Such claimants as Mr. Chorpennig were coming forward with greater vigor than had been displayed by them since the days of Galpin and Matteson, and, in short, affairs looked very much as though it were generally conceded that Congress could do what it pleased with the country. In our columns, before the last Congressional election, we urged the advisability of sending new men to Congress, and, while giving due credit to the incomparable advantage of real trained statesmanship, we pointed out that modern Congressional experience had bred nothing more than adroitness in a system of tactics sufficient to hinder every measure of reform, but never sufficient to stop a flagitious piece of legislation. The action of the Congressional constituencies did not seem as decided then as was wished, but it is now evident that much more was felt than appeared on the surface. The unusual change which was made in the House of Representatives, though not unequivocal at the time, now looks like an advancing wave of the changed tide of public opinion.

Such being the situation outside of the national capitol, we may next note the changes which have occurred within. In the Senate they are comparatively few. The Republicans have lost such men as Pomeroy and Patterson; the Liberals, Mr. Trumbull; the Democrats, Mr. Casserly; but with the exception of the two last-named, the effective leaders of the Senate remain the same. In the House the remarkable fact is to be noted that two-thirds of that body are new members. These new members are not the direct fruits of the salary-grab and *Crédit-Mobilier* awakening. Their elections took place before those two scandals wrought out the present state of public determination. They were not chosen as reformers. They were not instructed by their constituencies through the elections as to what incisive work would be expected from them. They merely came into Congress with a lively sense of what they have recently heard, and tolerably clear ideas of some things in the way of public wrong which the people are by no means disposed longer to endure. Being for the most part politicians of the modern school rather than reformers of the school which is yet to be brought into Congress, it is natural for them to look, or try to look, upon the changing tone of public sentiment as an ebullition of passing excitement, and shape

their measures for the temporary rather than the permanent redress of national grievances. In other words, they believe it cheaper for the modern Congressman to undo with ostentation some of the "most obnoxious" doings of the last Congress than to busy himself quietly with a system of reform which shall assure us against such doings in the future. That "the last hours of the session" are not necessarily and properly a harvest-time for the individual legislator will strike many of the new members as quite as chimerical as the other annoying proposition, that the public service is not necessarily and properly a fund wherewith the Executive ought to bribe the Congressman, and the Congressman buy up his constituents.

Such being the state of public feeling on the one hand, and the condition of Congress on the other, it is not wonderful that Mr. Blaine should be rechosen Speaker. We have before this classed Mr. Blaine as among our better politicians, and have founded some hopes on his energy, courage, and intelligence. He was, at the opening of Congress, in a position to choose between public opinion outside of the House and the political wiles and influences within. Something was expected both inside and outside of Congress. It was inevitable that a choice must be made between the better and worse elements of Congress, and the attempt to remit the choice to a caucus having failed, it was equally inevitable that Mr. Blaine must accept the responsibility of choosing both for himself and for his party. It is needless to say how he has chosen. General Butler promoted to the chairmanship of almost the most important committee of the House; Mr. Butler of Tennessee assigned to the chairmanship of another committee; Mr. Dawes, with his *Crédit-Mobilier* duplicity hanging about him and his back-pay still in his pockets, rewarded with the highest post of honor in the Speaker's gift; Mr. Cessna (Chorpennig's Honest John Vane) placed on the Judiciary Committee to draught laws against Congressional corruption; Mr. Schofield given the chairmanship of the Committee on Naval Affairs, when naval affairs promise to involve the most numerous contracts and largest outlay of the session; and, not finally, but perhaps most significantly, Mr. G. F. Hoar, who did not, like Mr. Dawes, gratuitously pledge himself to support General Butler, pushed into second places on insignificant committees, while Judge Hoar, with all his courage, ability, and experience as Attorney-General, is shelved on committees where he can do the least good to the country and the least harm to the politicians.

Such is the Republican situation in Congress—the position which the party has assumed with regard to the past—the assurances which it gives with regard to the future. As to the Democrats, a recklessness which indeed seems like insane depravity brought them directly to the point of choosing as their leader at this eventful time the predecessor and preceptor of Tweed—an equally bad though not an equally bold or able man. It is, however, refreshing to know, and one of the hopeful signs of the times, that Tammany has felt the necessity of uttering a protest against the act, and (stranger still) an approval of the two bolting members. We await with some curiosity the censures which Republican conventions will utter against the disheartening organization of the House.

SUGGESTIONS AS TO THE BANKRUPT ACT.

IF the framers of the Constitution, in giving Congress the power to establish a uniform law on the subject of bankruptcy, could have foreseen what use would have been made of the power, they would perhaps have been inclined to make the clause compulsory rather than permissive. At any rate, if they had been gifted with prophetic foresight, they could not have failed to be amused at what was coming. That for some years the power should have lain in abeyance was not perhaps so remarkable; because for some years the business of the country was yet small; there were no railroads or telegraphs; in fact nothing like the network of commercial correspondence and intercommunication which, since the opening of the railroad era, has made connection between the various parts of the country so close and the country itself so homogeneous. Nor was there anything very surprising in the fact that the first important

bankrupt act should have been the result of the panic of 1837—by far the worst commercial crisis through which the country has ever passed. But what does strike us as remarkable is that a bankrupt act having been passed in 1800, only to be repealed in 1803, and another having been passed in 1841, for the purpose of enabling those who had become crippled by the financial embarrassments of 1837 to get rid of their debts, it should have happened that this desirable object was no sooner accomplished than this act also was immediately repealed; and that having been again revived because at the close of the war another generation of debtors found themselves hopelessly involved, it should again be proposed, now that the second bankrupt generation have generally got their discharges, to repeal the law and begin once more. It was the idea of the framers of the Constitution that the growth of population and commerce, might, as they have done, make the local State insolvent laws prove inadequate and embarrassing, and that the time might come when a uniform law on the subject would be as important to us as a uniform currency, or as a uniform bankrupt law is in England; but that the machinery they provided would be made use of at intervals of twenty or thirty years, first, by enactment for the purpose of enabling debtors to get rid of their debts, and secondly, by repeal for the purpose of facilitating the production of a new crop, to be harvested by a new bankrupt act—this is what they probably hardly looked forward to at all.

Whether or no the present bankrupt act is in need of amendment is a question into which we do not propose to enter, but there are one or two considerations connected with the subject which are important, and which are yet generally overlooked. The President has recently been looking into the matter, and the conclusions at which he arrives in his message are, first, that "at this time many considerations might be urged for its total repeal"; but, in the second place, if this is not considered desirable, he thinks that

"It will not be seriously questioned that those portions of said act providing for what is called involuntary bankruptcy operate to increase the financial embarrassments of the country. Careful and prudent men very often become involved in debt in the transaction of their business, and though they may possess ample property, if it could be made available for that purpose, to meet all their liabilities, yet on account of the extraordinary scarcity of money, they may be unable to meet all their pecuniary obligations as they become due, in consequence of which they are liable to be prostrated in their business by proceedings in bankruptcy at the instance of unrelenting creditors. People are now so easily alarmed as to monetary matters, that the mere filing of a petition in bankruptcy by an unfriendly creditor will necessarily embarrass and oftentimes accomplish the financial ruin of a responsible business man. Those who otherwise might make lawful and just arrangement to relieve themselves from difficulties produced by the present stringency in money, are prevented by their constant exposure to attack and disappointment by proceedings against them in bankruptcy; and, besides, the law is made use of in many cases by obdurate creditors to frighten or force debtors into a compliance with their wishes, and into acts of injustice to other creditors and to themselves. I recommend that so much of said act as provides for involuntary bankruptcy on account of the suspension of payment be repealed."

Now, it will be seen that the feeling underlying these recommendations is that it is a very disagreeable thing to be obliged by creditors to pay our debts. The President says, indeed, that the bankrupt act has increased the financial embarrassments of the country, and that this "will not be seriously questioned," but the only argument by which he supports this proposition consists in saying that prudent and careful men often involve themselves in debts which the scarcity of money renders it difficult for them to pay. This is no new discovery. The year 1873 is not the first year in the history of the world in which money has been scarce. It has been scarce every autumn in this country since the issue of greenbacks began, and if the arguments which the President advances are sound, they have been sound for the last ten years, and were sound even so late as June 30, 1870, when he approved the amendment to the original law, providing that any one "who has stopped or suspended and not resumed payment of his commercial paper within a period of fourteen days," may be proceeded against as a bankrupt. It is certainly true, as the President says, that when people are in a timid and nervous condition, they frequently injure a trader's business—standing by filing a petition against him, and that if no creditors ever took any proceedings whatever against their debtors, there

would be no bankrupts in the country. It is also true that any law for the enforcement of debts may be made use of by "obdurate creditors" to "frighten or force debtors into acts of injustice to other creditors and to themselves," but what has all this to do with the question?

What the President says—and it is a very good résumé of the current arguments on the subject—is in reality directed against any kind of an insolvent law which authorizes proceedings against debtors in cases where they have not committed acts of fraud. The only difference between a bankrupt law and an insolvent law—other things being equal—is that one is "uniform" and gives a discharge of debts through the whole country, while the other is local and applies to a single State. The President probably had no intention of going to the length of maintaining that careful and prudent men who become involved ought to be able on proof of "due diligence" to be relieved from the obligations imposed by law on the rest of the community. There are a great many other statutes besides the bankrupt law which in times like these are a serious embarrassment to "careful and prudent men," as for instance the laws relating to attachment, execution, and sale under foreclosure.

It is very much to be hoped that there will be some intelligent discussion of the matter somewhere, and that, before the act is repealed out of hand, some light will be thrown on its actual operation. For example, we should like to know whether it has not had a very good effect on railroads, in creating an increased sense of responsibility where it is so much needed, and in facilitating the enforcement of debts against them created by mortgages. When five or six years ago there was some doubt whether a railroad could, under the provisions of the act, be adjudged a bankrupt, the companies in every test-case made the most strenuous efforts to resist it, though without success, and they were wise in their generation. The large debts which all railroads owe are mostly secured by bond and mortgage; but this security to the ordinary bondholder is not by any means what it seems to be on paper. The mortgage is usually made out to three trustees, who are supposed to represent the bondholders' interests, and to take steps for foreclosure if the interest is not paid; but these trustees are not the servants of the bondholders, not their representatives, not even selected by them. They are mere agents of the road, closely connected with its management, and in case of trouble their interests are opposed to those of the bondholders for whom they act as trustees. Let any one who holds a railroad bond look at the names of the three gentlemen to whom it runs, and ask himself whether they will be very likely, in case of a default of interest, to take steps to foreclose the mortgage, when foreclosure will destroy the stocks, put an end to the nice contracts, and, in a word, overturn the régime by which they live. But let a petition in bankruptcy be filed, and there is a wonderful difference in the appearance of the scene. If the road is really insolvent, its affairs are wound up under the superintendence of a committee of the creditors, appointed not by the railroad but by a court; while, if the road is solvent, heaven and earth will be moved to make some arrangement by which its debts can be paid and bankruptcy averted; for bankruptcy, as the President says, is unpleasant. Here we have a distinct advantage secured to a large class of the community by the act, and one which could not, it seems to us, be secured in any other way. At any rate, these facts about railroads make it evident that the matter ought to be discussed in a spirit quite different from that which dictated the paragraph in the President's message which we have quoted, and we trust that before the matter is disposed of this will be done.

THE ORGANIZATION OF CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, Dec. 6, 1873.

THE two Houses of Congress are once more in working order. For some time it looked as if the Cuban difficulty would become the all-absorbing subject of discussion until Christmas, but at the present moment the prevailing sentiment seems to be, the less said about that, the better. Con-

gress is, a few Senators and Representatives excepted, not at all in a warlike mood, and the same may be said, I think, of several members of the Administration. The Secretaries of War and of the Navy, indeed, seized this occasion to blow themselves up into new importance, to indulge in bellicose bluster, and to spend large sums of money in preparation for emergencies. A war would undoubtedly have been welcome to them, as an inflation of the currency would be to business men in doubtful circumstances. But the Secretary of State wanted peace, and, if I am correctly informed, he would have conducted the negotiations with Spain in a much more moderate and cautious spirit, had not, at the beginning, the impression prevailed here that the "excitement and indignation" in the country were genuine, and that the Administration would not be able to sustain itself in Congress and before public opinion without a war-whoop. It was probably this fear, which was not allayed until a large number of Senators and Representatives had arrived here, which prevented a calm consideration of the question, and led the Secretary into a position with regard to the status of the *Virginius* as an American ship, and the right of Spain to arrest and take her, which he otherwise might not have chosen, and would have been sorry to maintain by force of arms. As matters now stand, it is not unlikely that a discussion of the subject in Congress will be avoided unless the volunteers in Cuba should refuse to deliver the *Virginius*, and thus open the whole question once more. What turn things would take in that case it is impossible to predict. I know that the position taken by the *Nation* in this matter is shared by a very respectable number of influential men in both Houses; but many of them might feel compelled to stand by the Administration in insisting upon the execution of the agreement once made between the Governments of Spain and the United States, while others would probably discuss the question on its real merits.

It was at first expected by many that the President, as well as those of the Republican leaders with whom party success is the supreme object, would eagerly seize upon a foreign war to divert the attention of the country from the *Crédit-Mobilier* disclosures, the back-pay business, and several other untoward occurrences which had so seriously embarrassed the ruling party, and also to neutralize the evil effects which the financial crisis had produced on the popular mind. The opportunity seemed indeed very seductive. It is interesting to observe the curious reasoning by which the party leaders, especially those who think of themselves as possible candidates for the Presidential succession in 1876, arrived at the opposite conclusion. A war with Spain, they argue, would probably not be a very long one. Even if successful, it would produce very serious financial embarrassments. If it closed a year or two before the next Presidential election, the evil results would have disclosed themselves just in time to affect the popular mind, a reaction would set in at the most critical moment, and the party which conducted the war would be placed in a very precarious situation. There is certainly much good sense in this, and for once partisan shrewdness may have been of service to a good cause. The President himself, who has never devoted much attention to international law, is said to understand at least this feature of the case, and to prefer in this instance a diplomatic to a military triumph.

The defeats of the Republican party at the late State elections, as well as the farmers' movement and the financial crisis, have created an impression among the faithful that after all the party is mortal, and that something must be done to keep it alive. Honesty, economy, virtue generally, and "statesmanship" are in great demand. The eagerness of members of Congress to commend themselves to the good opinion of their countrymen by a vigorous condemnation of the "salary grab," and the repeal of the obnoxious law, is almost ludicrous to behold. In the Senate, Mr. Conkling made haste to vindicate himself by the introduction of a bill providing that the back-pay which had been drawn and turned over to General Spinner, or which had been left in the hands of the Secretary of the Senate, as Mr. Conkling had left his, subject to the disposition of the Senator or Representative entitled to it, be covered into the Treasury, beyond the reach of such Senator and Representative, as well as their respective heirs; and in the Republican caucus of the House, there was all the excitement of a race as to who should be ahead in moving the repeal. This is well as far as it goes. But the appointment of the committees exhibits the majority in both Houses as much in the old party "ruts" as before. It is true several Republican Senators decided that, in order to reunite all who had been Republicans on a common ground, it was time to throw off the narrow partisan spirit which had prevailed last year, and to invite the Liberals, especially Messrs. Sumner and Schurz, to the Republican caucus. This project, however, was defeated by the strict disciplinarians, especially, as rumor has it, by Chandler and Conkling, who insist that, according to the good old rule, "deserters must be shot"; but the reconciliationists succeeded at least in prevailing upon the caucus to assign the Liberals to positions on the committees instead of leaving

them at the mercy of the Democrats. Thus the Liberals were put on committees between the Republicans and the Democrats, as a sort of middle party, and, as the irony of accident would have it, Mr. Sumner's name figures near the bottom of the Committee on Education and Labor, at the head of which stands Mr. Flannagan of Texas as chairman—the very caricature of a Senator, who can neither spell nor speak correctly, and whose ignorance and buffoonery are the amusement of the galleries. But Mr. Flannagan is a strict party man. It may have been intended as a concession to public opinion that the Committee on Civil Service and Retrenchment was revived, but upon the list of its members we find not a single active friend of civil-service reform, while almost all of them are experienced whitewashers who have already given ample proof of their proficiency in the business. No less significant is it that Mr. Stewart, who has more than once been taunted on the floor of the Senate with being the attorney of one of the Pacific Railroad companies, remains Chairman of the Committee on Pacific Railroads.

In the House no changes have been made that would materially alter the character of the committees. Neither the *Crédit-Mobilier* nor the back-pay scandal was permitted to affect their composition or the distribution of the chairmanships, and, in fact, they could not, without completely disorganizing the party. The Ways and Means Committee has a majority of protectionists; the Committee on Banking and Currency, more important than ever, is about equally divided between inflationists and advocates of specie payments, and General Butler remains chairman of the Judiciary, to expound the law to the House of Representatives. Evidently it requires more than a sudden impression that virtue is a necessity to reform an old party organization that has fallen under the control of bad elements. What legislation we may expect of this Congress nobody can predict. There is an unusually large proportion of new and inexperienced men in the House, many of whom will be apt to be handled like chess-figures by the old tricksters, unless an intelligent and vigorous pressure of public opinion upon them be kept up. In that way the success of jobs may be avoided, and the present fit of virtue may be prevented from exhausting itself in the repeal of the salary law.

As to the most important question, that of the currency, the cry for "more money" will undoubtedly be very strong in the House. There is some danger of the success of the inflationists there. The confused recommendations in the President's message have rather aided than weakened them, for they have been taught how to put forth loud professions in favor of specie payments, while practically advising an expansion of the currency. But, judging from present appearances, I think the inflationists will have to meet the most determined resistance in the Senate. That body has, as far as known, not yet been canvassed with regard to that question, but the opponents of expansion think themselves strong enough, even if no positive measure in the direction of specie payments can be carried, to prevent the passage of any inflation scheme. But there does not seem to be any probability of financial legislation being hurried through before Christmas, although the inflationists may make an attempt in the House. The Senate will have to take up the Louisiana case again—Mr. Pinchback, the late Governor, demanding admission as the Senator-elect of the Kellogg faction. The party whip will probably once more try its power on that occasion, as it has already done in the House. But I hear that the Kellogg faction in Louisiana will urge a new investigation, in which they expect to show up more clearly the fraudulent practices of Warmoth in conducting the election. In case the investigation is granted, some time may elapse before the Pinchback case is ripe for final decision.

THE MARSHAL AND THE ASSEMBLY.

PARIS, NOV. 20.

LAST night, at two o'clock, the powers of Marshal MacMahon were prolonged for the term of seven years, on the following conditions: The Marshal is now and will remain the mere delegate and servant of the Assembly, so long as the constitutional laws are not made. Among these laws there will be one on the powers and prerogative of the executive; and when this law has been voted, the Marshal will enter immediately upon the prerogative as defined by the Constituent Chamber. The national sovereignty is therefore intact; the representatives of the people are free to make the constitutional law or the executive as they like. The talk about a dictatorship seems therefore quite idle. The powers of MacMahon are defined in the present and will be defined for the future.

This solution will perhaps surprise many people out of France. It will not be well understood by those who start from abstract theoretical principles, and who do not take into consideration the very peculiar state of

France and the composition of the French Assembly. The most natural solution, in a logical sense, would have been this: Keep the Marshal in power on the actual terms of his tenure of office; during the *statu quo* make the constitutional laws; and, these laws once made, proceed to a presidential election, on the terms marked out by the law on the executive. This solution was advocated by moderate republicans like M. Laboulaye, on constitutional grounds, and was desired by M. Thiers and by M. Gambetta, because both expected that a presidential election, whatever rules might be devised for holding it, would not turn in favor of Marshal MacMahon. In ordinary circumstances, and admitting that the country was determined to establish republican institutions, the constitutional work was the only thing of importance, and there was no necessity of immediately trusting any man with the executive power for a number of years. But let us consider a moment what was the situation of the Chamber and of the country when the session began. The Comte de Paris had made his visit to the Comte de Chambord on the 5th of May; the fusion was complete between the two monarchical parties. They had adopted the same platform—representative government, equality of rights, the tricolor flag as a symbol of the abandonment of all privileges of the *ancien régime*. The monarchical party was conscious of its preponderance in the Chamber, and saw no further obstacle to the re-establishment of the monarchy. In the country, the expectation of the monarchy was only counterbalanced by the fear of the Comte de Chambord's disposition. His name was certainly unpopular, and the partial elections which took place turned in favor of republican candidates, less on account of any progress of republican ideas than because the electors thought it necessary to reinforce the Liberal element in a Chamber which was on the point of treating with the pretender. The negotiation began, and you know all its vicissitudes. At the very moment when everything seemed arranged, when the accord seemed complete between the representatives of the monarchical party and Henri V., the country was informed that it was the victim of an illusion, and the negotiations were broken off. Henri V. abdicated morally, if not formally. The country, notwithstanding its instinctive fear of the Bourbons, had become reconciled to the idea of the restoration, chiefly because it was thoroughly worn out and tired of political agitation. The uncertainty of the future, the dread of the Commune, the necessity of reorganizing the army and of placing France in a situation in which she could form alliances and resume her station in Europe—all these causes combined had rendered a solution of the political problem imperative.

During the last three years, not a step had really been made towards definitive institutions. In a country like France, so centralized, where everything depends on the executive, where there is no political force outside of the Government, incertitude is almost unbearable. It must always be borne in mind that France has no semi-independent states or provinces; that she is governed and administered by eighty-six prefects, who are the obedient agents of a Minister of the Interior; that this minister, politically speaking, is almost all-powerful. This organization has been the work of centuries. It was the historical task of Tocqueville to show that the great Revolution of 1789 really followed, in all administrative matters, the traditions of Richelieu, of Louis XIV.; that the prefects of Napoleon were only the successors of the intendants of the *Grand Roi*. Represent to yourselves in imagination a country where all the relations of life, with the exception of the family relations, are more or less controlled by the authority of a prefect. "Who is the new prefect?" is the great question asked in the provinces after each revolution. He comes from Paris (and under Louis XIV. it was already a rule not to send intendants to the provinces where they were born), unknown to the inhabitants. He is generally a lawyer; he is poor—that is to say, he has no fortune of his own; he enters the palace of the prefecture, generally the largest and handsomest building in the town; every office-holder of the department comes to pay him court; the general is under his orders; the bishop owes him the first call; the judges, the municipal officers, the gendarmes, the engineers of the Ponts-et-Chaussées, the professors of the university, the telegraph agents, surround him all the year round. He is more than a man, he is the law; he represents a new ideal, the *administration*; and in France, the tendency has always been to give to the state the superintendence of every department of social activity. The railways themselves will some day belong to the state, as they have not been conceded in perpetuity. The telegraphs, the high-roads, the schools, the hospitals, the public libraries, everything belongs to the state. I will not here compare the two systems—the system of self-government and the French administrative system; both have their advantages and their disadvantages. I will only say that, in the French system, the tenure of the executive power becomes a vital question for the country. As everything depends on what is called the administration, and as the administration is chosen by the executive, every change in the executive is a sort of revolution in the country. It is for this reason that so many Liberals in France would prefer a monarchy.

Even under a monarchy, a change of cabinet has too disturbing an influence in the country; but a dynasty might become popular enough to allow the provinces more independence, and it is doubtful if the Republicans will ever consent to any diminution of the powers of the state. They have always been the most determined centralizers. After the 4th of September, the government of Gambetta would not even hear of elections. Gambetta felt that he represented the "*République une et indivisible*." He would have no one speak for Brittany or for Lorraine. The monarchy is impossible for the present; but as the monarchical hopes were chiefly a craving for the consolidation of the executive power, the prolongation of Marshal MacMahon's term was decided.

The idea originated with the Duc de Broglie; it was not altogether a new one. The friends of M. Thiers, while he was President, had at various times spoken of giving him a fixed tenure of office for three years; but the Assembly, even at the time when M. Thiers was its delegate, was always deaf to such a proposition. It was not so in the case of MacMahon. The Marshal, since the 24th May, had never made his appearance in the Chamber, he had never interfered personally in the debates; he had in reality played the part of a constitutional king, and given all the reality of power to the Duc de Broglie, keeping only for himself the duties of a reorganization of the army. If France could have no constitutional king, the thing which resembled it the most was MacMahon. Once in power for ten years or seven years, he would be, with the name of President, a real Regent or Lieutenant-General of the kingdom. The large majority which has been found to vote for the prolongation was ever ready to hinder the return of M. Thiers and of the Republicans to power. This majority is essentially conservative. This will explain to you why, after the letter of the Comte de Chambord, no attempt was made to recommence legally, so to speak, 1830—to place the Comte de Paris directly on the throne, or even to give the Regency to him or to some other member of his family. In the great agitation which followed the rupture of the negotiations with Henri V., these extremities were thought of for a moment, but they never were seriously entertained. There was a savor of revolution in them which displeased the greater part of the majority. The prolongation was a milder form of protest of the majority against the folly of the king. The time is past when a king was seized, shaven, and thrown into a monastery. Every Legitimist of common sense understood that the Comte de Chambord had destroyed himself. The Royalists, who were in the majority in the Chamber, who are honestly convinced that the triumph of the Republic in France can only prepare the triumph of the Commune and the dismemberment of the country, could not change all their ideas in a night and become converted by a sort of miracle to republicanism. The scheme of the prolongation became a sort of resting-place for all uneasy and disturbed minds. It was clearly stated in the message of Marshal MacMahon that the prolongation would be an extension of the truce of parties. Republicans and Monarchists can and will continue, under the stern government of a loyal soldier, who will be a servant of the law as he always was of his duty, to preserve their hopes for the ultimate triumph of their doctrines. If the Comte de Chambord should die, or should abdicate, the Monarchists would probably bring forward a proposition for the re-establishment of monarchy. It is confidently expected in the monarchical party that, in such a case, Marshal MacMahon would resign his functions, and would not offer any obstacle to a restoration. It is, perhaps, idle to make such suppositions; the Comte de Chambord is not likely to abdicate, and he is much younger than the Marshal.

Practically, the situation of France is now this: Marshal MacMahon will be a sort of constitutional king; he will preserve order with the greatest rigor, and order is the chief necessity for a country which has been deprived of two provinces, and convulsed by a civil war. The Chamber will continue to exercise its legislative and its constituent rights; it will constitute an Upper Chamber, and probably give an important part in it to the representatives of the departmental councils-general. This innovation will, in my opinion, have the most beneficial effect on the future of the country; it will stimulate the formation of local and provincial influences, while it will add lustre to the central government. The Chamber will also frame a new election law, and probably disfranchise all the electors who do not appear in the lists of the tax-gatherer, even for the trifling sum of three francs, which represents what is called the personal tax. A new municipal law will also be made. When all this is done, the Constituent Assembly will dissolve; and even if the electoral body return a Radical Chamber, which is very unlikely, the President, with the help of the Upper Chamber, will be able to counteract its action. It must not be supposed that MacMahon can be deposed by a new Chamber; he has been called to his new function by a constituent law—that is, by a law which cannot be changed during the term for which it has been made.

Correspondence.

THE ATTORNEY-GENERALSHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: We all look to your paper for speaking the truth and for correct notions; and are shocked at your saying the nomination of Mr. Williams for Chief-Justice is "respectable." No lawyer who has ever encountered him considers the nomination anything but discreditable, and it is made at a time when Mr. Williams's feebleness as a lawyer has been conspicuously demonstrated by his appearance in the *Crédit-Mobilier* suit, where he not merely failed to argue his own side tolerably, but did not know, and showed that he did not know, enough to appreciate the positions and arguments of the defendants, or to understand their force.

Your paragraph was a blow to your legal readers here; hence these lines, which I hope you will take kindly.—Yours truly,
T. H.
Boston, December 5, 1873.

[We discussed Mr. Williams's appointment simply as the alternative of Mr. Conkling's, and supposed we had made this sufficiently clear. But we confess we are satisfied, from the remonstrances we have since received, that, little as we said for him, we said too much. We admitted that he was neither learned nor able, but we now believe he is not "respectable" in the best sense of that term, and that his appointment would be scandalous. We ought to add that Mr. Conkling has postponed the study of finance for the present, and is busily "working" for Mr. Williams's confirmation. The Administration papers still continue to hint that there is a subject on which Mr. Conkling could speak with authority. If they will only mention what it is—provided it is not mixed metaphor—we shall be all ears. "Authorities" are nowadays very scarce, and the public is eager for guidance.—ED. NATION.]

CHURCH DISCIPLINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* is almost invariably accurate and reliable, but the article in last week's issue on "Church Discipline" is based upon a singular misapprehension of facts. Neither Mr. Beecher nor Plymouth Church "hold that it is none of the church's business what a member's way of life is," nor that "enquiries into his morals and manners with the view of making him the subject of ecclesiastical discipline are futile and mischievous." It was not deemed advisable to exercise discipline in the particular case you refer to for several reasons, one of which was that the person had practically ceased to be a member four years previous; but the church made no such declaration of principles as your article attributes to it. The church merely asserted its own independence. The readers of the *Nation* have so much confidence in it that the article on "Church Discipline" is likely to mislead those not conversant with the facts.

NEW YORK, Dec. 8, 1873.

A. A. H.

[We attributed no "declaration of principles" to the church. We commented on Mr. Beecher's speech, and pointed out what we conceived to be a legitimate deduction from his definition of the church's duty in the matter of discipline, as illustrated by its practice. We explained our position as well as we could without citing cases, which was not necessary for our purpose. Our article will "mislead no one who is conversant with the facts," and will enlighten, we hope, a good many who are not. It was written in aid of the great work of expelling canting knaves from organizations designed to promote religion and morality—a work which we hold to be the principal part of the reform movement of the day. We may add that, while believing Mr. Beecher to be seriously mistaken as to his duty in dealing with the wretched creatures who have been pestering him during the last year, we have no feelings to express towards him, under present circumstances, but sympathy and respect.—ED. NATION.]

WHAT MAKING THE CURRENCY "ELASTIC" MEANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The popular fallacy of the day in the treatment of the currency question is the theory that if a new issue of legal-tender notes is made by

the Government, convertible at the pleasure of the holder into bonds bearing interest at 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. and *vice versa*, the quality termed elasticity will be imparted to the currency.

In order to exhibit the entire futility, or worse, of the proposed method of imparting elasticity to our legal-tender currency, it is only necessary to recur once more to the true nature of the legal tender note. It is, as has so often been said, only an instrument by which the Government collected a forced loan. It is the dishonored promise of dollars forced into circulation by law in order that the Government might obtain the means to carry on war. It is to-day a lie and a fraud: a lie because it promises what the Government does not perform, and a fraud, because it is continued in forced circulation on the plea of necessity, after the need has ceased. The plan now proposed is to issue more legal-tender notes—that is, to collect a new forced loan. There is no pretence that the Government needs to borrow (its income is more than its expenditure), yet it is proposed that it shall borrow say one hundred millions, and force new legal-tender notes into circulation to that extent.

But how will it force these notes out? The revenue is ample and meets all expenses. The Government cannot lend these legal-tender notes; it wishes to buy nothing that it has not now the means to pay for. Then it can only get these proposed new notes into circulation by purchasing the five or six per cent. U. S. bonds now outstanding—there is absolutely no other possible course. The theory, therefore, is that the present six and five per cent. bonds will be sold to the Government at or about the present moderate premium by some one who wants legal-tender notes bearing no interest more than he wants bonds bearing five or six per cent. interest in gold; he is then to make use of these notes as money for a time, and it is to be presumed that such use will be at a rate of profit of more than five or six per cent. gold, else there will be no conversion; next, it is assumed that the rate of interest or profit will fall not only to 5 but even to 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and the notes will return to the Treasury. If such a course were possible, all the recent successful and unsuccessful attempts to fund our six per cent. bonds at five per cent. have been useless, since on this new method it has needed only a moderate additional issue of dishonored promises, and the debt to the extent of such issue would either bear no interest at all or convert itself from six and five per cent. even down to 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The very rate of interest proposed is evidence that the project is one that presumes ignorance, not only of the effect of the cheat, but also of the common rules for casting interest, for no people capable of estimating interest *except* at the rate of one cent a day on each hundred dollars could be tricked by such a device.

Let me repeat the process as it must work, if it works at all, in a business formula. Bear in mind that the new notes can only be got into circulation through the purchase of outstanding bonds (unless, indeed, the Secretary of the Treasury concludes to buy and store away a large sum in gold).

A wants money to pay debts with, and has or can obtain 10-40 five per cent. bonds, on which he cannot borrow legal-tender notes now in circulation, as money is scarce and the market rate of interest is high. He takes these bonds to the Treasury and sells at market price, say 108. For \$10,000 of 10-40 bonds, bearing interest at 5 per cent. in gold, he gets \$10,800 legal-tender notes bearing no interest; and these notes he forces upon his creditor B, under due process of law. This creditor B (or we may presume to call him B. F. B., the chief promoter of this fraudulent device), having been forced to accept these new notes thus added to the volume of the currency, passes them to D, a distinguished New York banker, also an advocate of the plan; and as D can no longer find a use for the notes, either in building railroads or selling dry-goods, and cannot find any one to whom he can lend them at over 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. interest in currency, he takes them to the Treasury and converts them into bonds at that rate!

The course of the new notes may be short or long; they may be funded by D, or they may be paid out by him upon some railroad enterprise, and finally get into a savings-bank, and thence into the Treasury; but they cannot get out of the Treasury except in exchange for a five or six per cent. gold bond; and they cannot get in except by conversion into a 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. currency bond. In other words, if the thing is done at all, it will be done by the Government issuing, at the present market rate of its five per cents, evidence of debt for \$10,800 for each \$10,000 of debt bought in, and then converting this evidence of debt for \$10,800 into another form for the same amount at 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. interest. Every such issue will increase the aggregate amount of debt, and it can only diminish the burden of interest upon the supposition that the community consists entirely of knaves or fools—knaves who will authorize or promote the issue of more lying and cheating promises of a dishonored Government, and fools who would reconvert them into other promises of the same Government at a lower rate of interest than has ever prevailed in the United States on the safest mortgage of real pro-

erty. The fact would be that any such new issue of legal-tender notes would be at once absorbed by the rise in prices sure to follow; and as such a breach of trust as the collection of a forced loan in time of peace would impair if it did not altogether destroy confidence, the rate of interest would rise instead of falling, since every owner of real capital in land or merchandise would refuse to part with it except he charged, in addition to the interest for its use, a full guarantee against further fraud or ultimate repudiation on the part of the Government.

This scheme is nothing but the old greenback device in a new form, promoted by the same advocates, and as sure to result in making the rich richer and the poor poorer. It is another proposition to pick the pockets of the people under due process of law, and to cheat the ignorant under the false pretence of making money plenty and cheap. If such an act is done, it will prove that the late panic has ended too soon and has not been severe enough. It has been apparent for many months that this nation is not to be taught the need of using good money by any teaching except the disaster which surely follows the use of bad money, and that Congress will not cease from reissuing counterfeit dollars until the mass of the people have learned that they have been cheated by the hard pinch of want. If the lesson of the last two months has not been severe enough, it may be our fate to have another legal fraud perpetrated upon us before the final retribution comes.

NEW ENGLANDER.

Boston, December 1, 1873.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS will add to their 'Handy-Book Series' a volume containing a detailed record of the administration of our Government from 1776 to 1873, and entitled 'Hand-Book of Statistics of the United States.' It has been compiled by Mr. M. C. Spaulding. To their series of 'Popular Manuals' they will add a plain account, partly historical, of 'Women before the Law,' by Prof. John Proffat.—J. B. Lippincott & Co. will shortly issue the 'History of English Institutions,' by Philip V. Smith, and 'The Border-Land of Science,' by Richard N. Proctor.—L. W. Schmidt, 24 Barclay Street, announces that, after January 1, he will add to his customary importations of books from England, Germany, and France regular weekly shipments from Italy. This is, we believe, the first attempt on the part of our foreign booksellers to keep the reading public *au courant* with Italian literature as with German and French, and we hope it will be sustained.—Karl Knortz is publishing in *Der Deutsche Pionier*, of Cincinnati, extracts from David Zeisberger's journal, from the original MS. in the possession of the Ohio Historical and Philosophical Society. The journal has never been edited before.—The Surgeon-General's Report, U.S.A., states that the second volume of the 'Medical and Surgical History of the War' is rapidly passing through the press, and that the edition of the first volume has proved insufficient to supply the demand for it from ex-medical officers who served through the late war. The library of the Army Medical Museum now contains about 25,000 volumes and 15,000 pamphlets, and is rapidly growing in importance.—J. W. Bouton will publish the work on which the late Mr. J. C. Hotten was engaged at the time of his death, namely, 'Original List of Emigrants, etc., who went from Great Britain to the American Plantations, 1600-1700.' Also the following: 'Lost Beauties of the English Language'; 'Ireland's Shakespeare Forgeries'; and 'The Story of the Stick, in all Ages and Lands.'—Rev. Thomas Vickers has, after a sharp contest, been appointed Mr. W. F. Poole's successor in the Cincinnati Public Library.

—John H. Carmany & Co., San Francisco, have nearly ready for publication a book of some importance and interest to naturalists, on the natural history of the whale, by Captain Charles M. Scammon, of the Revenue Marine. The title of the book is 'The Marine Mammals of the Northwestern Coast of North America; together with an account of the American Whale-fishery.' It is in shape a large quarto, which has enabled Captain Scammon to give lithographic representations of the different varieties of whales and seals, drawn to scale; and these are very carefully and admirably done, and will present to the view of naturalists probably the most perfect representations of these immense mammals which have ever been made. Captain Scammon has been for many years engaged in the collection of material for the work, and has brought together a large quantity of new and valuable information concerning the habits of whales, of which but little is generally known, as well as of their food, their diseases, etc. The book is to be sold by subscription only, we understand, and it will make its way into the libraries of lovers and students of natural history as one of the few scientific treatises on its subject, and the most complete and correct of the number.

—The New York *Independent* has just been celebrating its twenty-fifth anniversary, and, for a paper of its venerable age and its religious turn of mind, some of its conduct on its birthday was peculiar. Its treatment of the Rev. Justin D. Fulton, for instance, appears to reveal a settled conviction that branding on the forehead and subsequent deportation to a desolate island are the treatment best adapted to the case of that divine. The closing sentence of the article devoted to the doctor is not the severest thing in it, but even that is as follows: "Just why a man of Mr. Saunders's self-respect has withdrawn from Dr. Fulton's paper Mr. Saunders has not informed us; but we can surmise." The reader, it will be seen, has liberty to surmise too; but not many of the persons who put themselves to that trouble will frame the hypothesis, after reading the *Independent's* remarks, that Mr. Saunders's real reason for withdrawing from the paper was his belief that Dr. Fulton is far too good for mere man to associate with. According to the writer's assertions in the preceding part of his article, Mr. Saunders probably withdraws for a cause very remote in character from the one suggested: "We do not wish to insist," he says, "in any hypercritical spirit that the eminent pastor of the Hanson-Place church should always confine himself to the truth. That, indeed, would be requiring altogether too much." That Dr. Fulton came into these parts from Boston is dimly alluded to in the following words: "There is in this region a vulgar prejudice in favor of veracity which must sometimes be conciliated," and in view of this fact the writer suggests to his Massachusetts friend "that he should be careful not to make statements which everybody knows to be the reverse of true." As for the facts about the Mr. Saunders above-mentioned, they turn out to be something like this: Saunders withdraws from Fulton's paper, taking with him, unless the *Independent* is mistaken, "the single element of respectability which that journal has hitherto possessed." Upon this Fulton remarks in what seems rather irrelevant language that Saunders greatly disliked one Pentecost, Fulton's predecessor—and, as we are led to suspect, a heretic—but that Saunders is very fond of Fulton by reason of Fulton's superiority to Pentecost in matters of doctrine. But, to use the language of the *Independent*, Fulton, in making this statement, speaks "the thing that is not," and the fact is that it is Pentecost and not Fulton who has Mr. Saunders's sympathy. "Close communion" or "open communion" is, we believe, the question at issue between Dr. Pentecost and his opponents. So the thing goes on, and a pleasant sight it is to see. It is with envy, by the bye, that we note one weapon in use among religious journalists—who often are clergymen—which secular members of the craft do not possess, although they have one like it. But our clerical brethren have this and another beside. They can not only charge each other with editing a paper which is rapidly falling off in circulation—a time-honored device constantly in use—but they can also add that the reverend slanderer on the other side, the more he preaches on Sundays, the more he empties the pews: "The pew-rental of the society," says the *Independent*, "has been reduced by about one-half since the resignation of Dr. Pentecost," and since Dr. Fulton came in. Clearly the lay editor is here at a disadvantage. The enemies of Deacon Richard Smith, the Cincinnati editor, might, in consideration of his hybrid condition, he being a deacon, perhaps make some use of this engine; but, in the nature of things, it cannot be employed by the profession generally.

—So many old stories of heroic phrases and death-bed utterances have been exploded by the researches of modern criticism, that it is pleasing to find at least one the truth of which is even better than the current fiction. American coin-collectors are generally familiar with the copper tokens which, in the pre-nickel days, passed in the currency as cents, bearing, some one inscription, some another, and issued, in most cases, we believe, from no regular mint, or, at any rate, not issued in the usual way. Among these tokens was one which bore the inscription, very impressive to the non-adult population, "Millions for defence, not one cent for tribute"—an inscription which seemed in those days to describe with happy accuracy the position which the American citizen ought to take with regard to taxation for certain purposes. The story was that General Pinckney, Minister to France from the United States during the Administration of John Adams, was approached by M. de la Croix, who wished to have it understood that certain diplomatic questions then at issue between the two Governments could be more easily settled by the payment of a sum of money than in any other way. Upon this, according to the tradition, General Pinckney very melodramatically drew himself up and cried: "Millions for defence, not one cent for tribute." It seems, however, that what he did say was, "Not a penny, not a penny"; a reply better every way. This, at least, is the way in which he himself told the story, being asked long afterwards for a correct version at a meeting of a club to which he belonged in Charleston. It seems singular that the truth of the matter should not have come out before. In "Millions for defence, not one cent for tribute" an eagle-scream makes itself audible which would have sounded

strangely enough in the ears of the gentlemen of General Pinckney's generation.

—There has been some talk recently in England of a suit for libel against the *Pall Mall Gazette* by Mr. Gilbert, author of "Pygmalion and Galatea," "The Palace of Truth," and the "Wicked World." The action is for libel in permitting the publication of some remarks characterizing the "Wicked World" as a play of doubtful decency. The plot of the "Wicked World," which has recently been acting in New York, is pretty, and if there is anything of an immoral tendency in it it must be put there by the actors—an easy thing for even the most unskilful performer to do. The plot is this: The fairies of both sexes, inhabiting an abode of their own in cloud-land, are happy and good. They are apparently coeducated, but coeducation in fairyland leads only to the happiest results, for neither *Darine*, *Selene*, *Phyllon*, *Ethais*, nor any of the others, are tormented by human love, or indeed by any human feelings, except such as are good. They lead harmless lives, knowing neither hate, nor fear, nor jealousy, nor revenge, nor ambition; but only filled with a pure affection for one another, and pity for the wicked world beneath them, with its suffering, struggling, and unhappy inhabitants. Each of the fairies is the antitype of some one on earth who bears the same name, and resembles him or her in everything save virtue. The fairies have the power of summoning among them the human beings who bear this resemblance, but if they do so they entail upon themselves certain consequences of the most lamentable kind. They will then know what human love is, and, knowing this, they will cease to be happy. Of course their discussion of the subject ends with a summons, the fairies having convinced themselves that they will be able to do the mortals whom they summon much good by the example of their own goodness. The result is easy to anticipate. *Phyllon* and *Ethais*, who are represented as mediæval knights, ascend from the earth, and, true to their instincts, as soon as they appear in fairyland begin to brawl, bluster, and fight. The fairies at once fall in love with them, and hence ensue jealousy, hate, tears, revenge, quarrels of the most internecine kind. In the end, the two knights, who care for nothing in reality but fighting, and regard woman, even when she is a fairy, as "a mere toy," suddenly return to earth, and leave the deserted fairies, for the moment, heart-broken. They recover their spirits in a measure, however, before the curtain falls, and vow that they have had enough of human love, and will hereafter remain faithful to the institutions and principles of fairyland. Although the plot is so unlike, the sentiment resembles that of "Pygmalion and Galatea," and although the plot is astonishingly unreal, the success of the play as a whole—for it has been very popular both in England and in this country—is a striking proof how very sentimental people remain at bottom notwithstanding all our talk about realism and the disinclination of the age for anything which carries it an inch aside from the beaten path of progress and the nineteenth century. It would be well for those playwrights who spend their time in devising means for making the stage more and more a facsimile reproduction of an age whose prominent features are not picturesque, but decidedly prosaic, to ask themselves seriously what is the reason that such plays as "Pygmalion and Galatea" and the "Wicked World"—with all their faults and their unreality—interest the public.

—In our recent notice of Mrs. Grote's memoir of the gentleman whom she habitually describes as her "partner," considerations of space prevented us from paying due attention to the lady herself. The work, in fact, may fairly be called an autobiography of Mrs. Grote, interspersed with anecdotes of the historian of Greece. There is an old dictum of Aristotle's that "the magnanimous man thinks well of himself because he deserves to be well thought of." Each part of the definition exactly applies to her. There is, it is true, no direct, vulgar vaunting of her virtues; but she lays her merits calmly, honestly, and without any reticence, before the reader as things which ought to be known in order to understand the life of the historian. Thus, she frankly communicates to the public the details of Grote's courtship, with a freedom with which such matters are not often told to intimate friends. She prints, without a word of comment, a letter of George Grote's, in which he states that "she looked lovely beyond expression; her features still retained the same life and soul which once did so magnetize me; I never have seen it, and I never shall see it, on any other face"; and pours out all those expressions of admiration which lover after lover has written, but which are not commonly published for the edification of cold and unimpassioned readers. In the same way, the wretched baseness of a certain Mr. E., described as a "monster" who attempted to separate the lovers, is painted with an animation which reminds one strongly of the pages of a novel. We doubtless owe these details, not to vanity, but to the interest which Mrs. Grote feels in everything concerning herself, and which is so genuine that she contrives to communicate it to her readers. Her affection and admiration for her husband, her zeal in promoting his success, and the keen sympathy

which she felt in his triumphs, are made as clear as day. But, at the same time, it is impossible not to feel that the lady has the most ardent desire that the public should recognize her share in his achievements. The different forms in which this tendency to self-assertion comes out are amusing and characteristic. There is, for instance, every reason to suppose that Mr. and Mrs. Grote, being throughout life warmly attached to one another, arranged their domestic affairs much after the manner of other affectionate husbands and wives; but the tone Mrs. Grote takes suggests the idea that every arrangement was the result of distinct negotiations between friendly but independent powers. In 1824, "George Grote consented to take his sister to Scotland, and his wife being willing to accompany him, they all made the voyage by sea," etc. "Mrs. Grote," again, "had numerous friends and connections among the aristocratic portion of society, and her inclination would fain have led her to cultivate their sympathies by frequenting their houses; but the aversion, at this early period of his life, to everything tinged with aristocratic tastes and forms of opinion which animated George Grote's mind, obliged his wife to relinquish her intercourse with almost all families of rank and position rather than displease her somewhat intolerant partner." This sentence is in many ways typical of Mrs. Grote's manner. Throughout the book there are clear intimations that, unlimited as is her admiration for the historian, she yet feels that there are matters which she understood far better than he did, and that she was constantly a sacrifice to her sense of duty.

—That Mrs. Grote, however, deserves to be well thought of there can be no doubt. What makes her remarkable is neither cultivation, nor subtlety, nor originality, but an extraordinary amount of vigor, and what, for want of a better term, may be designated as individuality. It is to this vigor of life that her successes, both as a wife and an authoress, must be ascribed. In both capacities she achieved great results. To her is due the suggestion of the work in which Grote's powers found their real field. In the year 1823 Mrs. Grote, hearing the subject of Grecian history frequently discussed, and being well aware "how attractive the study was in her husband's eyes, thought it would be a fitting undertaking for him to write a new history of Greece himself. Accordingly she propounded this view to George Grote: 'You are always studying the ancients whenever you have a moment's leisure; now, here would be a fine subject for you to treat; suppose you try your hand?' No one can wonder that Mrs. Grote announces with a certain solemnity her suggestion, which "seemed acceptable to the young student," and, in fact, fixed his intellectual career. No one can doubt that Mrs. Grote has a right to ascribe to herself, in great part, the credit of this suggestion being carried out with success. What were the value of her literary criticisms we have no means of judging, but a very little reflection on the great risk to which the labors of a highly cultivated scholar are constantly exposed of being rendered abortive by his own diffidence and intellectual squeamishness, will suggest that Grote owed a great deal to the fact that he had constantly by his side a companion whose warm interest in his fame made her absolutely determined that his labors should produce a definite, tangible result. In 1831, Mrs. Grote was already resolved that the "History of Greece must be given to the public before he can embark in any active scheme of a political kind." In 1833, she was obviously alarmed because "Grote did not apply himself, as I earnestly besought him, to the furtherance of his history during the winter, but permitted himself to graze all the field of letters." She further carried through all the negotiations with the publishers, and in every way relieved her husband from any unnecessary burdens which might interfere with his undertaking. When, in 1855, the twelfth volume was published, and the bowl of punch brewed at "History Hut" in celebration of the *opus magnum*, one can easily understand how Grote himself sipped the "delicious mixture with great satisfaction, whilst Mrs. Grote sat by and descanted on the happiness of our living to see this day."

—The excavations and discoveries by Herr Schliemann on the site of ancient Troy have attracted much attention, and few are unaware of the alleged discovery of the very ornaments and regalia of Priam. A letter from Athens in *Im Neuen Reich* (No. 41) casts doubt, not upon the discoveries, but upon Herr Schliemann's interpretation of them. Many of us, no doubt, have considered that it was hardly likely the substructions were labelled "Troy," or that the gold ornaments bore the name of Priam or Hecuba. This writer scouts altogether "der ganze trojanische Spuk"; says that the localities do not correspond at all with Homer's descriptions; and that the objects of art mostly belong to a later period, probably not before the time of the Diadochi. Another paragraph in the same number speaks of the German enterprise for excavations at Olympia, where valuable remains must exist, as it was for centuries the great repository of works of Grecian art, and very little has been attempted there in modern times. The foundations of the temple of Zeus, discovered by the French in 1829, will afford a sure starting-point.

HADLEY'S ESSAYS.*

FEW books have as much in them to praise and as little to find fault with as Professor Hadley's 'Essays.' Not that they are so very brilliant or so very profound for these times of evolution and revolution, when your critic kills me three or four systems of the universe at a breakfast. One may read almost any of these articles with quiet interest and pleased assent without thinking it anything great. But the scholar who is competent to judge will be impressed, as he reads one after another, with the wide range of reading and reflection and the sound sense and comprehensive judgment which are everywhere shown in them. He will recognize a judicial mind of the best type, with no prejudices, clear, bright, penetrating, able to weigh the finest grain of evidence, able to set in luminous order the most complicated collection of facts and arguments, and, withal, kindly and cordial, glad to see merit and prompt to praise it. Most of these essays were prepared for some learned society or periodical; but they are, if not exactly popular, certainly very pleasant and easy reading. One reason is that they are so elementary. Whatever Professor Hadley discusses, he begins at the beginning, and supplies all the facts as he goes along which are necessary to understand him. The profound article in which he announced a new general law of the Greek accent to the American Philological Association, and which has been translated and printed in Germany by G. Curtius, begins with such full elementary statements and goes on with such simple illustrations that any one may read it with intelligent interest, though he had not before so much as heard of accent. So, when he speaks of consulting Ulfilas, he specifies "the translation of the Bible made by Bishop Ulfilas in the fourth century for his Meso-Gothic countrymen"; and speaking of the seven wonders of the world, he names them all. Then, in his diction and the structure of his sentences, he is quite simple and pure, and flows along as though he had never read a Greek book, or perhaps we should say as though he never read anything but Greek, and Xenophon at that.

Many of the essays are summaries of the state of the question on some important point of scholarship. They are full of matter as an egg is of meat. They abound especially in clear and authoritative solutions of the difficulties most familiar to teachers of language. These are by no means confined to the Greek language. Great Greek scholar as Professor Hadley was, he seems to have studied English and its antecedents even more than Greek. The "Brief History of the English Language" which he contributed to the Webster 'Dictionary' is as perfect in its kind as his 'Greek Grammar,' and has more original research behind it. Certainly no teacher or student of English can afford to be without this book of essays. Here, for example, is an article of twenty pages on the English possessive case. Observant readers of our older literature often think that they know the ending *'s* to be a contraction of *his*; they have seen it printed in full, "*John his book*," "*Vincentio his son*," in the 'Spectator,' Shakespeare, and all the way back to Chaucer. Those who know a little Anglo-Saxon, notice that its genitive often ends in *-es*, like the Latin *-is* and Greek *-os*, and they pronounce the *his* theory ridiculous. Both should read Professor Hadley. The contemptuous Anglo-Saxon especially, though right in substance, may be benefited by learning how common the separate *his* was in late Anglo-Saxon or Semi-Saxon, and how often the colloquial dialects of Germany have formed similar collocations of undoubted pronouns: *dem Mann sein Name* for *des Mannes Name*, the man's name; *Frau Wolf ihre Töchter*, Mrs. Wolf her daughters, and the like. Professor Hadley had not observed that similar forms now and then occur in Anglo-Saxon proper, and with other pronouns than *his* in old English: *Gode his name eigan*, they called on God his name (Ps. xlviii. 6), *Pallas her glass* for *Pallas's glass*, in Bacon.

Professor Hadley was, above all things, a philosophical grammarian and philologist, a worker in the scientific history of speech. He had, of course, made a special study of the growth of inflections. Besides the article on the English possessive just referred to, there are similar essays in this volume on "the Greek genitive as an ablative case," "the formation of Indo-European futures," "passive formations," and "the Latin subjunctive," all of them admirable illustrations of the use of the historical method by a thoroughly logical mind. One who has mastered them will have a good knowledge of the nature of inflections, and of a large number of the most noteworthy forms in the Indo-European languages, with occasional specimens from the tongues of all the outlying barbarians. In the interesting and learned essay on "passive formations," the new continued passive in English is discussed.

"In one auxiliary formation," he says, "this double use as active or passive belongs to the established idiom of our language. We say 'he is building the house' and 'the house is building'; while he was doing these

things' and 'while these things were doing.' It is in order to avoid the ambiguity of this form that men have latterly begun to say 'the house is being built,' 'these things were being done.' These forms of the continued passive have had to undergo much severe criticism, and it can hardly be denied that they are somewhat illogical, and perhaps yet more unwieldy. Still, they have their convenience. Probably there is no man who, if the fear of the grammarians were taken from him, would not occasionally use them. Like other things which are homely and useful, they will be likely to maintain themselves against all opposition, at least in the language of conversation and extemporaneous speaking, and may possibly gain a place at last even in polite literature."

This was written in 1867, and the form has already gained a place in polite literature. It has crept into the 'Earthly Paradise,' and is quite at home in Froude and the whole generation of growing celebrities in England. And, now that it has lost the uncouthness of a new fashion, one of the new time may venture to say that, when compared with our other auxiliary formations, it is not markedly ungainly, and that the steps by which we have arrived at it have been quite natural and logical. It is the habit of our times to think much of action as continuous, to study development and progress and the like. This habit of thought leads to habits of expression discriminating continuous forms, passive no less than active. When people came to be saying at every breath, "they are entertaining him," "they are tormenting him," and the like, they were sure soon to say, "he is being entertained," "he is being tormented." The participle "being entertained" is, to be sure, a modern form, and has not in its most familiar uses fully attained the expression of continuous action which is so prominent in the active "entertaining"; but that expression belongs of right to the ending *-ing*, and the verb *be* has a hereditary claim to be associated in the expression, not only from its Indo-European meaning of *growing, becoming*, but also from its Anglo-Saxon use as a future in distinction from the stricter present, *am, is, are*. The so-called ambiguous form, according to which we are to say "he is entertaining," when we mean "he is being entertained," "receiving entertainment," never has been in familiar use, except in a few phrases. The passive form of thought in other cases was idiomatically expressed, or suppressed, by circumlocutions of one sort or another, or by changing the verb altogether. The new form is a great gain to our language.

The attention of Prof. Hadley was long and strongly drawn to those laws of speech which depend on the nature of sound and voice. He had a sensitive ear and flexible organs of speech, with every aptitude for this kind of investigation, and his work in it is the most original and fruitful which is recorded in this volume. There are articles on "Ancient Greek Rhythm and Metre," "The Nature and Theory of the Greek Accent," "The Byzantine Greek Pronunciation," "Indo-European Aspirates," "Bekker's Digamated Homer," "Ellis's Early English Pronunciation," "English Vowel Quantity in the XIIIth Century and the XIXth," "English Orthography." Some of these are in the main learned summaries, but others are work on fresh facts. The most conspicuous are those on "Greek Accent" and on "English Vowel Quantity." The former presents a comprehensive classification of the well-known rules of Greek accent, stated in the form of a causal law, which also serves as a hypothesis to connect the Sanskrit accentuation with the Greek. The hypothesis leaves a distinctively Greek "fondness for a particular succession of tones at the end of a word" as the cause of the prevalence of that succession. Such a "fondness" needs a detailed demonstration of its development, or historical grounding from some other source, to be admitted a *vera causa*, and Professor Hadley, had he lived, might well have continued and completed so important an investigation. His belief that stress did not accompany the change of pitch on the accented syllable in Greek is hard to accept, strong as is the negative evidence in favor of it. The changes of sound, especially of vowel-sound, produced by the accent in Sanskrit and Latin, and the known stress-accent in other Indo-European tongues and in modern Greek, make it seem almost certain to us that pitch and stress were never completely separated, even in Greek, however strongly pitch may have at one time predominated.

The article on English vowel-quantity is an exposition of the relations between the language of the 'Ormulum' and our present English. It shows that the quantity of the Anglo-Saxon words in our language has been preserved during great changes in the vowel sounds, thus suggesting the most subtle questions as to the nature of speech. Is time a more constant quantity than articulation? How about the Romanic side of English?

The study which Professor Hadley had given to these subjects makes his judgment worthy of the most serious consideration on all points connected with English orthography. Our popular writers, and some makers of school-books who ought to know better, still go on making prejudice in behalf of our "shocking" spelling, as Professor Hadley calls it, by repeating the sayings of literary amateurs in its favor. The great philologist speaks of it more than once.

* Essays Philological and Critical, selected from the Papers of James Hadley, LL.D., Professor of Greek in Yale College; President of the American Oriental Society; Vice-President of the American Philological Association; Member of the National Academy of Sciences, etc. New York: Holt & Williams. 1873.

"Franklin used to say that what we call false spelling of the vulgar was really true spelling. I do not know that I should say that, for vulgar spelling is sometimes most ingeniously absurd. But I certainly feel a good deal of hesitation about saying in regard to any man that he spells badly; I say that he does not spell like most of us; he spells singularly, peculiarly; but I do not see, on the whole, that he spells worse than the spelling-books and newspapers," p. 354. "The objections commonly urged against a new system of phonography have in my view very little weight." "But I will go further, and say that the wants of the philologist require a different system. What is important for him is that he should know the condition of a language at any given period of the past, that he may be able to trace it through its successive changes to its latest form. Now, in doing this he must depend mainly on the spelling, the writing; if this be maintained invariable from age to age amid all mutations of spoken words, the philologist is deprived of his most serviceable guide," p. 356.

Professor Hadley's scheme for printing an edition of Chaucer for popular reading may perhaps attract the attention of editors and publishers. The leading thought is to spell all words in the modern way, but when the metre requires a letter now silent to be sounded to put two dots over it, and if a word has a syllable not printed at all in modern spelling, denote it by an inverted apostrophe. The 'Canterbury Tales' would begin thus:

"When that April with his shower's sweet
The drought of March hath pierc'd to the root;
And bathed every vein in such liquor,
Of which virtue engendered is the flower."

This, he says, would be treating Chaucer as we do Shakespeare. It is worth trying in books of extracts and literary lectures; but it would not answer for the careful study of Chaucer and other Early English which is becoming common in our schools and colleges, and brings with it urgent need of a uniform phonetic spelling of the early texts at once reasonable and historical, like that used by Mr. Ellis. And, indeed, any extension of the use of our shocking modern orthography is much to be deprecated.

There are more articles, twenty in all. One is on the theory of E. Curtius, that the Ionians were Asiatics, whose central hive and real headquarters continued to be in Asia, while their colonies settled at Athens and elsewhere on the shores of Greece. One is on the number seven, a playful and, at the same time, really learned and interesting discussion of the prevalence of this sacred number. It contains an enumeration of the sevens in the Iliad and Odyssey, a description of those in Sanskrit, the hundred sevens of Persia, the three hundred and eighty-three of the Bible, the sevens of the Mohammedans, the sevens of Shakespeare, and then reasons as plenty as blackberries, chronological, physiological, arithmetical, astronomical. One is on Tennyson's Princess, appreciative throughout, though rather apologetic, the best part of which is the discussion of the metres and the labored diction of the poet. There are also articles on the chronology of the Hebrews, and the language of Palestine at the time of Christ, and a number of decisions of college class disputes. The last are admitted to the book as a memorial volume "in response to wishes warmly expressed from various quarters," though they were written "currente calamo and without special preparation, and in no case revised or corrected. Their author, doubtless, would never have thought of such a thing as making any of them public." We confess we turned to them the first thing, in the hope of finding the free expression of many delightful personal traits. It was not, perhaps, a reasonable hope in view of the nature of the exercise. At any rate, we were somewhat disappointed. The papers on Byron and that on vegetable diet have a biographical touch or two, and we find some evidence in the talk on day-dreaming that Professor Hadley's surpassing accuracy was not due to any mysterious memory, but was a matter of caution and love of truth, as with other men; it contains a familiar quotation from Wordsworth misquoted, not very badly, and which would not have been misquoted if he had read the proofs. But in general these lighter papers are valuable mainly for the same traits as those which are more labored, for the truth and sound sense which they contain. Professor Hadley was so absorbed an observer, and saw things so clearly, that he speaks merely as the mouthpiece of the truth; all personal categories seem foreign to him; he is dry light, pure, sweet—sweetness and light, if ever a man was.

We should have liked to find minute accounts of the traits and habits of study and teaching of our great scholar and instructor. A memorial volume seems hardly complete without them, and without his portrait. The appreciative preface of Professor Whitney tells us that he died on the 14th of November, 1872, in the fifty-second year of his age, that he had been for twenty-seven years an instructor in Yale College, and that "he was, in the opinion of all who knew him most fully, America's best and soundest philologist." Men of sovereign judgment, who live in the midst of great libraries, are apt to ripen slowly to public utterance. A look at the later papers of this collection makes it plain that Professor Hadley had just entered on a new period of pleasant publication of original investigations. The ripe fruit was beginning to drop freely. And then he died. No philosophy can keep such a death from seeming sad and strange.

CHILDREN'S HOLIDAY BOOKS—III.

IT is eight years since 'Hans Brinker' was first published, and there is no good reason why it should not be in active circulation eight years hence. The story is, as we remarked at the time of its appearance, appropriate to the holiday season, yet independent of it. It will always furnish wholesome reading to the young, who will find in the skilful and natural development of character something to admire and to imitate, and for whom the descriptions of scenery and manners in Holland, and the tales from heroic Dutch history, will have an abiding charm. We should be troubled, indeed, to name any child's book written in this country which better deserves to be counted a classic. For this reason we make bold to reprove the publishers with putting at the front so bloodthirsty an illustration as that representing the capture by the boys of the robber at the *Red Lion* inn. It relates, of course, to one of the incidents of the narrative, but precisely the one which least needed illustration; and as frontispiece it conveys a false impression of the character of the story. And if we may grumble a little more about the pictures, we would point out how inferior they are in value (and would be, even if intrinsically of far greater artistic merit) to as many photographic illustrations of life in Holland. We hope that the success of 'Hans Brinker' under its new imprint will be such as to justify the publishers in preparing next year an edition somewhat more attractively typographically, and adorned with autotype views of dykes, and canals, and windmills, and skaters, and town-halls, and perhaps a portrait or two of the old-time Dutch worthies whose deeds are recounted by Mrs. Dodge.

Perhaps we ought not to class 'Buzz a Buzz' among the books intended for children, though we observe that this has been done by others, remembering, probably, Herr Busch's 'Max and Moritz.' The latter is not in our opinion, a fit child's book, and 'Buzz a Buzz,' of which the humor is even coarser, still less. There is a certain grossness of exaggeration in Busch's designs which grown folks occasionally find it hard to stomach, even when the incidents are not inherently vulgar. Some of the incidents in 'Buzz a Buzz' are of this description, and parents of ordinary refinement, if they smile at the representations at all, will be careful not to do so in the presence of their children.

Of quite a different character are the designs in 'Good Little Children,' 'Maggie's Mistake,' and 'Little Laddie,' from the sympathetic pencil of L. Frölich. The style of this artist is now so familiar to every one that it is hardly necessary to speak of it, except, perhaps, to observe that, while it retains all its old spirit and excellence of conception of children, it shows a tendency to exaggerate in drawing, making the heads immense and the necks and chests painfully small. But he is, as usual, a large part if not the chief attraction of the books he illustrates. In 'Good Little Children,' the only text is the titles underneath the pictures—each of which occupies a page—which run: "Good little children never say 'No' when they ought to say 'Yes,' nor 'Yes' when they ought to say 'No.' It is a dreadful thing to tell stories." Or, "When good little children are asked to repeat a little poem or a little fable, they say it prettily, at once." Or, "Good little children finish their soup to the last spoonful, but they never tilt their plates in this way." The whole thing is very pleasant and attractive, and ought to be a complete seduction into the paths of virtue for the most abandoned infant.

'Davie and Dot' is a companion piece to 'Good Little Children,' the text being rather more extended and equally happy; the pictures rather fewer, and, to our taste, not so attractive. The simplicity of the little ones in these designs is studied instead of instinctive, and the posturing and dressing are too theatrical. A picture free from these defects is the one described beneath: "This is the best way to do it. Dot holds the nail, and then Davie can take both hands to the hammer. Now for a good blow right on the head of the nail."

'Maggie's Mistake' is an admirably conceived school-girl's story. Its autobiographical form, instead of being a drawback, as it is apt to be in

* *Hans Brinker*; or, *The Silver Skates. A Story of Life in Holland.* By Mary Mapes Dodge. Illustrated by Darley, Nast, and others. New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co.

* *Buzz a Buzz*; or, *The Bees.* Translated from the German of Wilhelm Busch. By Hezekiah Watkins. With the original German illustrations, and 28 original designs by Park Benjamin. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

* *Good Little Children.* Adapted from the French of P. J. Stahl. With thirty-two illustrations from designs by Lorenz Frölich. New York: Pott, Young & Co.

* *Davie and Dot: their Pranks and Pastimes.* Adapted from the French of P. J. Stahl. With twenty-four illustrations from designs by E. Froment. New York: Pott, Young & Co.

* *Maggie's Mistake: A School-girl's Story.* By the author of 'Aunt Annie's Stories,' etc. With twenty-four illustrations by L. Frölich. New York: Pott, Young & Co.

* *Little Laddie.* By the Author of 'Little Mother,' 'Little Rosy's Travels,' etc. With twenty-four illustrations by L. Frölich. New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons.

* *Sketches of Natural History; or, Songs of Animal Life.* Written by Mary Howitt, and illustrated with upwards of One Hundred Drawings by H. Giacomelli, illustrator of 'The Bird,' by Michelet. New York: T. Nelson & Sons.

* *Rhoda Thornton's Girlhood.* By Mrs. Mary E. Pratt. Illustrated by C. G. Bush. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

* *The Life of a Bear. His Birth, Education, and Adventures.* With twenty-four illustrations. New York: Pott, Young & Co.

children's stories, here adds to the naïveté of the confessions and the liveliness and naturalness of the narrative. The author knows the small school-girl character well, and remembers with delightful accuracy the "ways that are dark and the tricks that are vain" of that class of little intense human beings. "Maggie," who tells the story, prides herself on being a "high-spirited" child, and thinks people don't know how to "manage" her. She is sent to the small and select boarding-school of Mrs. Comfort, who abandons the charge of her pupils to Miss Careless. A fine crop of bad habits springs up under this popular teacher, when she is deposed to make way for Miss Power. Under Miss Power things are very much altered. The girls determine in a body not to submit to the new rules, to remain "high-spirited," and not become like the good little girls in books—like Ellen, for instance, in the 'Wide, Wide World,' or Fleda in 'Queechy,' who used "to cry whole bucketsful of tears." So they cultivate the female capacity for small and ingenious worrying—a quality which has its analogue in the petty cruelty of boys—and endeavor to worry Miss Power from the school. The task of reforming these torments and delivering an instructive lesson through the lips of the chief sinner is very skilfully done, the interest of the story not in any way flagging, nor the human nature ceasing. The close of the book finds Miss Power loved as well as respected, while the reader will particularly like her, as she is a lady of few words, no moralizing, a discerning disciplinarian, and one who has the capacity for turning the experience of her scholars into their best teacher.

Another good book this year is 'Little Laddie.' It is for very small people, the hero being a Johnny who cannot talk plainly. There is just a trifle too much of this baby talk—"I've got somesing so nice for 'ou, 'ickle birdies," being the style which, once begun, the author feels bound to stick to consistently all through. The incidents are sprightly and interesting in spite of the extremely young public addressed, the language is simple, and the print large and fair—all recommendations to beginners in the art of reading. Johnny has an elder sister, one of those motherly little girls who make so large a part of the comfort of a poor family. May is Johnny's teacher and playmate, and her gentle spirit and sage management form the most attractive feature of the book. The religious teaching at the end is very literal and of decided orthodoxy, so that 'Little Laddie' will be more acceptable in Church than in "Liberal" circles.

Mary Howitt's Poems of 'Natural History' is one of the handsomest and most covetable Christmas books for young people we have ever seen. The workmanship of the volume is in the highest style of printer's and binder's craft, while the pictures by Giacomelli are more than a mere adornment—they are exquisitely finished little works of art, quite worthy to be embellished by poems. Of Mary Howitt's writings, nothing need be said; she has long ago taken rank as one of the first writers for the young, as well as a versifier of taste and culture and high moral tone. Much of her poetry is already as "household words" here as well as in England, and there must be many people who, familiar with it in their young days, would be glad to place it in the hands of their children. Two or three of the poems here included are written by William Howitt. Five of those by Mrs. Howitt appear for the first time in this work.

'Rhoda Thornton's Girlhood' is prefaced by a pleasant little note of praise from Mr. Whittier, who had read "some chapters" in it "with great satisfaction"; so that the reader begins the story with an agreeable prepossession. Nor is he, or she—for it is more particularly a girl's book—likely to be disappointed. She may possibly be even better pleased with it than she had expected, for young folks sometimes care more for the narrative than they should, and less for the "local coloring and characterization" of which Mr. Whittier makes complimentary mention. Fortunately for this youthful taste, Mrs. Pratt has plenty of "story" to tell, and does not digress into any impertinent "sketching"—a clever accomplishment much in fashion now, but which interferes with the progress of a story, and causes disturbance in the immature mind.

In Rhoda, we have again the motherly little girl, taking care of her small brother as well as herself on a New England "poor-farm." They are orphans about whom nobody knows anything. By-and-by, Rhoda gets a "place" on a typical New England farm, where she manages to take Jimmy with her. They continue to live with Miss Deborah Nichols several years, until it is discovered in a curious way that they are related to a very rich family in the neighborhood, and are themselves heirs to wealth. This is only a rough outline of a really well-conceived, well-told tale. It reminds one, in its descriptions of New England life, of some of the chapters in Miss Wetherell's popular books. The style is simple and direct, and there is a pleasant humorlessness throughout. There is, to our taste, a little too much wealth and "aristocracy" at the end; the sterling virtues of Rhoda's character, strengthened by her peculiar experiences, seem to find a niche where they have no pay. Independent and generous she is shown to be through all; but generosity is

a pleasant pastime when money is plenty, and independence comes as natural as breathing to "first families." Still, 'Rhoda Thornton' deserves to be well recommended. Church-going people, and those who choose a special kind of reading on Sunday, will particularly approve of it, while others will not find religious opinions unpleasantly obtruded.

'The Life of a Bear' is a nice story in big print and big pictures for small boys. The kind of story is familiar to everybody: a family of animals with human names and human feelings, and a mixture of human and animal attributes, going through a series of adventures more or less consistent with probability. It is only necessary to say of this one that it is a good specimen of its kind, and as likely to be popular with boys not too old for it as any of its predecessors. There is not much natural history to be learned from it, and perhaps not much *unnatural* history that will have to be unlearned.

Gift-Books.—It is not so easy as it once was to distinguish this class of publications from the ordinary sort, but we believe the title may properly be applied to the works we are about to enumerate. First in those qualities of paper, print, and binding which suggest the Christmas present, is Taine's 'Tour through the Pyrenees,' translated by Mr. J. Safford Fiske in what seems a skilful manner, and illustrated profusely by Doré (Henry Holt & Co.) The author's descriptive powers have seldom had a finer field, and he has not kept them in check. Scraps of history and philosophy, here a legend and there an extract from the old chroniclers, mingle with the narrative of travel, if narrative it can be called, when we have, rather, a series of photographic impressions of place after place, without much thought how the tourist got there; a disconnectedness favorable to desultory reading, and, therefore, quite in keeping with a holiday gift-book. But M. Taine is always interesting enough to be read continuously, and the present case forms no exception. The illustrations, which are largely of landscape, only now and then suggest the best-known and the least attractive side of Doré's genius; though the stories of Pé de Puyane and, after Froissart, of the Count de Foix, give scope for some touches characteristic of the satirist of 'La Sainte Russie.' The Spain described, by the way, is the Spain of twenty years ago.

Another work which bears the stamp of the season is Mrs. Eliza Greatorex's 'Summer Etchings in Colorado' (G. P. Putnam's Sons). The scene of this lady's artistic and literary labors was the vicinity of Colorado Springs, and chiefly at the sanitary settlement of Manitou (some seventy-five or eighty miles south of Denver), which enjoys an altitude about equal to that of Mt. Washington. Pike's Peak, the Ute Pass, the Garden of the Gods, and other romantic and charming resorts are close at hand, to which Mrs. Greatorex made excursions in quest of sketches and adventures, and now has made a book of the whole. We have found her chapters agreeable reading. They convey the impression of a truthful realism, much as do the etchings themselves. These, if not the highest efforts of their kind, are certainly praiseworthy, and all the more because of the neglect which this particular art suffers in our country. We judge from her own statements that Mrs. Greatorex drew first pen-and-ink sketches from nature, which were afterwards elaborated at her convenience under the graver. Their appearance confirms this view. They are generally over-elaborated, and lose the atmospheric effect which a freer handling might have ensured. In this respect they may be instructively compared with Mr. Hamerton's plates, executed entirely in the open air, in his 'Unknown River.' However, it is, as we have said, more proper to praise here than to criticise, and all these "summer etchings" are interesting.

'Art Culture' (John Wiley & Son) is, in the words of the sub-title, "a hand-book of art technicalities and criticisms, selected from the works of John Ruskin, and arranged and supplemented by Rev. W. H. Platt, for the use of schools and colleges." It is, besides, a very appropriate gift for any young person having an artistic temperament, whether or not a teacher is at hand to enforce its lessons. We need not enquire if this orderly digest of Mr. Ruskin's doctrine has been ideally well done; it is enough to praise the design, in the certainty that want of skill in arranging, or even of perfect intelligence in selecting, will detract little from the value of extracts from an author remarkable for always talking not only to the point, but to a point. On the other hand, it cannot but be an advantage to have Mr. Ruskin's best thoughts on composition, tone, color, perspective, sketching from nature, etc., brought together systematically as here, with a due proportion of the original illustrative designs—wood-cuts, lithographs, etc. Such a compendium is of course an excellent introduction to the further study of Ruskin, as well as of art; and for this a list of his works would have been helpful.

The plates of 'Pictures by Old Masters of the French, Dutch, and Flemish Schools' (T. Nelson & Sons) bear marks of previous usage and even of hard usage, and the imprint is without date. Mr. Dafforne's histo-

rical and critical descriptions might have redeemed these imperfections, but, in fact, they are commonplace in style and, as criticisms, of little worth. A certain number of facts and dates; some idea of the personal appearance of the artists under discussion, and of the subjects of sundry of their paintings, are all that the purchaser of this showy volume need expect.

The American edition of Mr. Edward A. Freeman's 'History of the Norman Conquest of England' (Macmillan & Co.), although reduced one-half in price as compared with the English edition, forms still, in all respects, a handsome series for the book-shelf. To the present four volumes a fifth and final volume will be added as published on the other side, together with an index to the whole five. All the maps are here, and as for the text, Mr. Freeman states that he has carefully revised it, corrected such mistakes as he has found, and incorporated the additions and corrections to each volume in their proper places in text, notes, or appendix. We have mentioned no work better suited for a holiday gift, whether as regards the outward dress or the contents.

Sub-Tropical Rambles; or, The Land of the Aphanapteryx. Personal Experiences, Adventures, and Wanderings in and around the Island of Mauritius. By Nicholas Pike. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1873. 8vo, pp. 503.)—We may premise, to save our readers the trouble of searching the maps, that Mauritius is a charming island in the Indian Ocean, lying some 300 miles east of Madagascar, and in 20 degrees south latitude. It was discovered by the Portuguese in 1505; was held by the Dutch from 1644 to 1713; then, with the neighboring island of Bourbon, belonged to the French for a century; and, lastly, for some sixty years, has been a British colony. For many years, it has been one of the great sugar-producing centres; for, though its size seems insignificant, being only 39 miles long by 34 miles wide, it has exported as much as 130,000 tons of sugar in a year. It has also for a century been of considerable importance commercially as a port of refuge for all vessels engaged in the East India trade, being midway between the Cape of Good Hope and the main Eastern ports. Of late years, too, it has been the rendezvous of whalers, the ocean in that latitude being the habitat of the sperm whale.

Although so long a British colony, very few books have been published concerning its history, and this most recent and comprehensive volume is the work of the American consul at Port Louis. As his book is especially devoted to the natural history of the island, we will first attempt a slight sketch of its political history. The French East India Company, in 1734, was the owner of the island, and in that year most fortunately chose as Governor Malé de Labourdonnais. He introduced the sugar-cane and various grains and plants into the agriculture of Mauritius; he built arsenals, forts, quays, shops, aqueducts, and canals; he transformed the island into a colony; and yet his immense labors and successes are forgotten, while the trivial occurrence of the wreck of the *St. Geran*, transformed in the romance of 'Paul and Virginia,' will remain for centuries as the chief event connected with Mauritius. The colony was naturally supported by slave-labor, and was as naturally Royalist at the time of the Revolution in France. The decrees of the home government for the abolition of slavery were disregarded, and when Napoleon, in 1802, re-established the slave-trade, his government was cheerfully acknowledged. In 1809 and 1810, incessant sea-fights occurred between the French and English fleets, and finally an English expedition landed on the island and compelled its total surrender in October, 1810. In 1814, on the restoration of Louis XVIII., Mauritius was definitively ceded to England, and Bourbon was restored to France. The island has, however, remained French in language, laws, race, and sentiment. In 1834, slavery was abolished in all the British dominions, and Mauritius received compensation for 68,613 slaves, at a rate averaging about £70 apiece. This period we have often heard described by the older inhabitants as the "flush times" of the colony. The money paid to the slave-owners was spent in luxury; the slaves refused to work during the five years remaining of nominal apprenticeship. At the end of the time, the colony found itself without capital or laborers, and a period of corresponding depression ensued. The control, however, was in English hands, and a scheme was matured for the importation of coolie labor from India, which resulted in placing the prosperity of the island on a sure basis for a number of years.

The ill-timed leniency of England in giving the natives control of municipal affairs has been the great error to which recent misfortunes can be traced. The population is about 300,000, of which over two-thirds are Indian coolies, 60,000 are descendants of the slaves, and the rest are whites of French descent, with a very small admixture of English residents. The Indians, of course, count for nothing politically, but the city of Port Louis was given up to the control of its inhabitants, ignorant blacks and almost equally ignorant

Creole whites. It had a population of 74,128 crowded within the limits of ten square miles. In 1866, '67, and '68, a local fever ravaged the island, and it was directly owing to the total lack of sanitary laws. There was not a drain in Port Louis, and the city government would not authorize the construction of any. The fever commenced in Port Louis, then spread to other parts of the island, and the deaths amounted to 12,548 in 1866, 41,100 in 1867, and 19,011 in 1868. From such a crushing blow it will take the colony years to recover. Yet with any regard to the ordinary rules of health, Mauritius must always be prosperous, and must be an important dependency of England. The climate is delightful; the country is charmingly diversified; access to other countries is sufficiently easy; nothing is wanting to render it an earthly paradise but submergence for fifteen minutes, a sufficient time to wash out its present inhabitants.

Consul Pike's book is one of great interest to the naturalist, as his rambles were chiefly made in the pursuit of plants and shells. He has set an admirable example to those of our fellow-citizens who have been rewarded for political services by honorary exile. We wonder while reading his pages at the chance which gave our Government such a representative. If, indeed, in this review we have seemed to have little to say about Mr. Pike, we shall plead that we have followed his example. This group of islands has been famous for a race of wingless birds, of which the extinct dodo is the type. Mr. Pike calls Mauritius the land of the Aphanapteryx, from another species of bird, but in his preface he says, "A full description of this bird will be given in a future volume," and so omits any further reference to it. When that volume appears, we will devote ourselves exclusively to Consul Pike and the aphanapteryx.

Love's Meinic: Lectures on Greek and English Birds, given before the University of Oxford. By John Ruskin, LL.D., etc., etc. (New York: John Wiley & Son. 1873.)—Extraordinary contempt for accuracy, as well as for the usual methods of attaining it, is a striking feature of this treatise. Perhaps a majority of the statements of fact are simply incorrect, while the inaccuracy of many others shows offensively in connection with a sneer at the means by which such glaring errors might have been avoided; and again, some of the erroneous statements are an uncalled-for attack upon a large and powerful class of thinkers—we mean scientists. Mr. Ruskin remarks, without qualifying context: "No English gentleman in recent times has ever thought of birds except as flying targets or flavorful dishes. The only piece of natural history worth the name in the English language, that I know of, is in the few lines of Milton on the Creation" (p. 7); and holds the literature of his subject up to ridicule in a manner that mainly serves to display his ignorance of it. In fact, he unintentionally avows this ignorance: saying that he "has looked wholly in vain through all his books to find some account of the muscles a bird uses in hopping" (p. 25); the fact being that these muscles have been often described in elaborate detail, and their peculiarities made the basis of one of the fundamental divisions of recent birds in a now generally received classification. He speaks of "the vile industries and vicious curiosities of modern science" (p. 51) with the singularly pointless accusation that they, "while they have robbed the fields of England of a thousand living creatures, have not created in them one." His count against the theory of evolution is couched as follows (p. 27):

"Nay, we might even sufficiently represent the general manner of conclusion in the Darwinian system by the statement that if you fasten a hair-brush to a mill-wheel, with the handle forward, so as to develop itself into a neck by moving always in the same direction, and within continual hearing of a steam-whistle, after a certain number of revolutions the hair-brush will fall in love with the whistle; they will marry, lay an egg, and the produce will be a nightingale."

This is neither wise nor witty. But as much cannot be said of the description of a swallow (p. 53): "It is an owl that has been trained by the Graces. It is a bat that loves the morning light. It is the aerial reflection of a dolphin. It is the tender domestication of a trout." Coming from an unknown pen, this would have been dismissed as bosh; and we doubt if there are many, even among the admirers of Mr. Ruskin, who can honestly say they see the point of it. It is unfortunate that a great artist's idiosyncrasies should have led him into such extravagances—most of all, that they should have committed him to the mistake of treating of matters his unfamiliarity with which is evident (we mean the scientific, as distinguished from the artistic, aspects of his subject) with manifest confidence in his ability to treat them well. It was, for example, unwise for him to castigate the authors of certain theories of the flight of birds before propounding one of his own—entirely such a one as was to have been anticipated.

Nor are we, viewing Mr. Ruskin merely as an artist, prepared to change the tenor of our criticism. Surely we had reason to expect that his stand

here would be firm, despite his slips as an amateur ornithologist. His remarks (p. 70), showing a Hohlbein: "It is entirely disgraceful he should not know what a wing was better—I don't mean it is disgraceful he should not know the anatomy of it, but that he should never have looked at it to see how the feathers lie"; and presents (p. 67) a drawing of his own which shows, as parts of a single figure, half the upper surface of a right wing joined with the other half of the under surface of a left wing, just for want of seeing "how the feathers lie" himself.

Admiration of Mr. Ruskin, or the reverse, is necessarily a matter of individual taste, since he refuses, with what we may call wilfulness, to be rated by any standard susceptible of general appreciation. But it is improbable that many of his admirers even will believe that this treatise will either add to his reputation as an artist or give him any claim to the title of naturalist. The subjects of his lectures, by the way, are no more "Greek and English" than they are French, German, or Italian birds.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

DECEMBER 8.

THE Bank of England minimum rate of discount was again reduced at the regular meeting of the directors on Thursday, and now stands at 5 per cent., against 6 per cent., to which it had been reduced from 8 per cent. the previous week. The banks of this city have been able to report handsome gains in legal tenders, while the loan certificates show a further reduction since the last report, and now stand at \$12,000,000. The weekly statement of the Clearing-House banks, published on Saturday, shows that the banks hold in legal tenders and specie \$59,052,800, against \$209,329,500 liabilities, composed of circulation and deposits; the excess in reserve held by the banks over the amount required by law is, according to the statement, which is made up of averages, published below, \$6,720,425. The actual amount of legal tenders on hand on Saturday morning was \$41,155,000—about \$7,000,000 more than the banks held at the commencement of the panic.

The following is a comparison of the averages for the past two weeks:

	Nov. 29.	Dec. 6.	Differences.
Loans.....	\$247,922,300	\$252,014,100	Inc. \$4,091,800
Specie.....	19,968,700	21,320,300	Inc. 1,351,600
Legal tenders.....	35,399,800	37,733,500	Inc. 2,333,700
Deposits.....	174,467,200	182,143,100	Inc. 7,675,900
Circulation.....	27,238,800	27,189,400	Dec. 49,400

Money has continued easy throughout the week to parties in good standing at 7 per cent. and under, while mercantile paper has passed more freely at 9 to 12 per cent. for prime names, and at 15 to 18 per cent. for names less favorably known.

The \$44,000,000 "legal-tender-reserve" had been drawn upon up to Saturday to the extent of \$13,000,000—the outstanding amount was then stated to be \$369,000,000, against \$356,000,000, the amount authorized by law.

The stock market has been very active, and a regular "bull" campaign seemed to have been inaugurated upon the opening of business on Monday, ever since which time a gradual advance in the prices of speculative stocks has taken place. The market has been healthy in tone, and seemed to be influenced by legitimate causes, such as the increasing abundance of money; the strong probability that more currency will be added to the amount already in circulation, at least to the extent of legalizing by Congress the reissue of the \$44,000,000 legal tenders retired during Mr. McCulloch's administration of the Treasury Department; and the important fact that the greater number of the stocks dealt in at the Stock Exchange have been, and

many of them are now, selling below their real values. On Saturday, the probability that the Grinnell estate would be settled up and released from the control of the Bankrupt Court imparted a very buoyant feeling to the market, and when it was announced this morning that Judge Blatchford had signed the order so releasing it, the rush to buy was nearly as great as it was to sell during the recent panic. The amount involved in the failure of Grinnell & Co. was about \$13,000,000, and nearly a corresponding amount of stocks had been privately sold out by the creditors during the last week, so that this large block no longer hangs like a cloud over the market. The advance to-day carried Central and Hudson to 95½, Lake Shore to 76½, Rock Island to 97½, Wabash to 53½, Western Union to 74½, Northwestern Common to 54½, Saint Paul common to 40½, etc. The investment stocks shared in the advance, New Jersey Central going to 98, Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western to par, and Harlem to 121.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending Saturday, December 6, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.....	90½ 91½	91½ 92½	92½ 93½	92½ 93½	92½ 93½	92½ 93½	56,300
Lake Shore.....	70½ 72½	72½ 73½	73½ 74½	71½ 72½	71½ 73	72½ 73½	111,300
Krie.....	46½ 47½	45½ 46½	46½ 47½	45½ 46½	45	46½	10,800
Union Pacific.....	24½ 25½	26 27½	27 28	27½ 28½	27½ 28½	27½ 28½	206,600
Chi. & N. W.....	47 48½	48½ 49½	49 50½	48½ 49½	48½ 49½	49½ 51½	35,500
Do. pfd.....	69½ 70	69½ 70	69½ 70	69½ 70	69½ 70	69½ 70	5,500
N. J. Central.....	95 96	96 96½	96½ 97	96½ 97	96½ 97	96½ 97	1,100
Rock Island.....	92 93½	93 94	94 95½	94½ 95	94½ 95	94½ 95	14,300
Del. & D. C.....	34½ 35½	35½ 36½	35½ 36½	35½ 36½	35½ 36½	35½ 36½	31,500
Do. pfd.....	38½ 39½	39½ 40½	39½ 40½	39½ 40½	39½ 40½	39½ 40½	3,400
Wabash.....	45½ 47	47½ 48½	47½ 48½	47½ 48½	47½ 48½	47½ 48½	50,200
D. L. & W.....	93½ 94½	94½ 95½	94½ 95½	94½ 95½	94½ 95½	94½ 95½	6,000
B. & O. Erie.....	1½ 1½	1½ 1½	1½ 1½	1½ 1½	1½ 1½	1½ 1½	18,400
O. & M.....	25½ 26½	26½ 27½	27½ 28½	27½ 28½	27½ 28½	27½ 28½	44,800
C. & C. I. C.....	23 23½	23½ 24½	24½ 25½	25½ 26½	25½ 26½	25½ 26½	66,000
W. U. Tel.....	65½ 67½	67½ 69½	69½ 70½	69½ 70½	69½ 70½	69½ 70½	250,800
Pacific Mail.....	31½ 32½	32½ 33½	33½ 34½	34½ 35½	34½ 35½	34½ 35½	167,000

The Government bond market has been very strong since the publication of the President's message. Prices have advanced nearly 2 per cent. on the more active issues of the 5-20's, such as July 65's, 67's, and 69's. The demand for bonds has come mostly from home investors, but great difficulty is experienced in filling orders, owing to the scarcity of supply. 67's closed on Saturday at 116½, and July 65's at 116, against 114½ and 114 respectively, the closing prices of the week before.

The gold market has remained quiet, and the fluctuations by no means wide, considering the Cuban news at times being quite warlike, and the danger of Congress passing some law tending to inflate the currency. The range of quotation has been between 108½ and 109½, closing at 109½ on Saturday.

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